

FUNDAMENTAL AND ADULT EDUCATION

Vol. X (1958), No. 1

EDITORIAL

The first four articles in this issue have a common theme: the organization and financing of literacy campaigns. In our April 1957 issue we presented a series of articles which examined the nature and role of fundamental education generally in overall development plans. These previous articles discussed the relationship of fundamental education to such matters as community development, health education, agricultural extension, the relations between the different ministries and authorities concerned with these as well as the way in which fundamental education can play its part—by teams, centres, through schools, etc. The present series of articles can be read as an extension on a narrower front of those in the April issue (Vol. IX, 1957, No. 2).

The four articles printed here have been carefully chosen not only to represent four geographical areas (complemented to some extent by the article from Jordan) but also to illustrate four type cases. The article from Uruguay describes a privately organized and financed campaign, that from Nigeria a regional effort closely linked with the development of local government, the article by Dr. Deshpande a situation where national plans must work within a federal structure and below that on an administrative basis in conformity with the activities of other governmental authorities. The illustration from Spain shows collaboration between two ministries and work with both teachers and municipal authorities at the local level.

It is difficult to see what generalizations can be drawn from these examples except that organizational and financial structure is inevitably, in each case, a reflexion of political, administrative and social traditions and aspirations. Although this may be a conclusion which could have been predicted in advance, the exercise seems still worth while as there are doubtless elements in each case which can be equated with conditions elsewhere.

THE LITERACY CAMPAIGN IN NORTHERN NIGERIA

W. F. JEFFRIES

The notes that follow are based on experience gained while the Literacy Campaign in Northern Nigeria was being planned and launched. The period of action coincided with a period of constitutional change, both rapid and fundamental, of which some account must be given so that the circumstances in which the campaign took shape may be appreciated.

When the war ended the colonial form of government by indirect rule still obtained. An effect of the war, in Nigeria as elsewhere, was to enhance the speed of social development. The task of government was to accelerate the growth of democratic methods of social organization and to foster the competent exploitation of natural resources in order to be ready for self-government much sooner than could have been anticipated before the war. This process has led to the division of the country into three distinct regions, each with its own parliamentary system of government, within the Federation of Nigeria, and the introduction of a democratic system at all levels of local government.

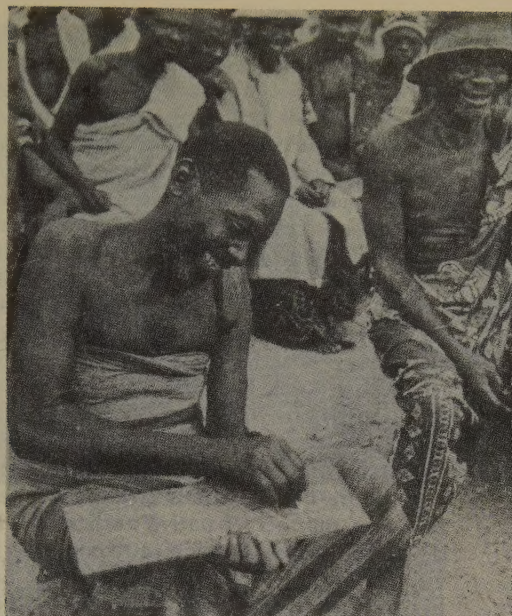
A social revolution was taking place, but most of the people affected have had little or no appreciation of its implications. Ninety per cent of them had never been to school. Literacy was regarded as a tool of their trade for those few who had been to school and had, as a result, become clerks, teachers and officials of one sort and another. The possibility, or point, of becoming literate for those pursuing traditional occupations was not apparent either to most of the illiterates themselves or to more than an enlightened few amongst their 'natural' rulers. There could be no popular demand, therefore, for a literacy campaign as a necessary remedial measure, and the initiative had to lie with the government.

At the end of the war all departments of government were under-staffed and over-worked. The Education Department was preoccupied with an urgent need for more and better schools of all kinds. Nevertheless, in 1946, one education officer was detailed to start pilot literacy schemes in different parts of the country, and to foster a desire for similar schemes in neighbouring communities. This article is concerned only with what happened in what is now the Northern Region, where some of these pilot schemes were located. Whatever purely local success some of these may have had, they continued in operation too long without encouraging any significant progress towards a wide-spread campaign. Any assumption that diffusion by emulation would quickly cover the country with literacy schemes proved false. After three years' work, expansion was negligible and the spokesmen for vast areas, containing focal points of great political importance, remained uninterested, sceptical and, in some cases, even hostile to the idea.

FIRST EFFORTS

Meanwhile the move towards regionalization in the political field had gained ground, and in 1949 an education officer in the north was detailed to take charge of literacy work in the Northern Region. During the next two years, however, very little progress was made. The opportunity thus provided for more intimate study of the schemes in operation quickly led to some technical improvement in methods of organization and instruction; and the contribution that literacy could make towards the attainment of regional aspirations gained recognition from the small class of educated people most immediately interested in political development. But the policy for expansion which continued to rely on the expression of positive local demand defeated itself. When the community has an illiterate way of life, the advantages of literacy cannot be appreciated until they are experienced. Such expansion as took place was sporadic and

Elders attend the mass literacy classes in Nigeria. They often make very little progress but attend in order to encourage the younger people to enter into the scheme. (Photo: Unesco.)



unco-ordinated, and so slight that the prospect of using literacy as a means towards general public enlightenment remained remote. Meanwhile time and energy were exhausted most uneconomically, while the failure of the schemes in operation to make a stronger impression on the region as a whole militated against any general eagerness for a literacy campaign.

Nigeria, or indeed any one region of Nigeria, comprises a great number of distinct communities of various sizes, at different stages of social development, and with different languages and customs. The trend of political events demands a unification of interests and aspirations. A condition for self-government must be that democratic processes are possible. Discrepancies must be levelled out and there must be a comprehensive programme for public enlightenment. The political objective not only requires a literacy campaign on such a scale that significant results can be achieved quickly, but also dictates the form it should take. The whole region and every community in it must be considered simultaneously.

THE REGIONAL CAMPAIGN OF 1951

Wisdom after the event shows clearly that the problem of illiteracy had been tackled from the wrong end in the first instance. No field work should have been started until provisions could be made for consistent diffusion throughout the country. The opportunity to do this did not arrive in the Northern Region until 1951. Clearer thinking could probably have created an earlier opportunity, but in the absence of this, the meagreness of what was actually achieved with so much trouble during the previous five years suggests that no harm would have come of waiting till 1951 before doing anything in the field.

In 1951, political development reached a point when declarations of policy for the social advancement of the region as a whole could include a plan for a region-wide literacy campaign in which local option was restricted to a necessary voice in operational detail.

Organizing the Campaign

The plan for the administrative structure of the campaign had been prepared long before in optimistic anticipation of its being required. This was easy to do, and could have been done at five minutes' notice because the requirements were self-evident and a model existed in the administrative pattern already established for parallel undertakings. The function of colonial government has always been to a very great extent educational and, in addition to the formal programme of the Education Department, a widespread programme of 'fundamental and adult education' has been in operation ever since stable government was established half a century ago. A task of all departments of government concerned with public welfare and prosperity has been to formulate policies of improvement, and by field work to teach the general public to apply them to their advantage. But the government's most important educational responsibility has been for the development of sound local government in which traditional patterns of social organization are preserved. To this end all departmental field work is carried out within the framework of local government. The Native Authority is the landlord and proprietor of the project and the employer of such staff as is required, for whom any necessary technical training is arranged by the department concerned. For the purpose of administration the region is divided into 12 provinces, each comprising a number of native authorities. Each government department posts a professional field officer to each province, who interprets policy, and co-ordinates and supervises the field work being carried out under the native authorities. Thus the region has its team of specialist planners and co-ordinators at the centre and each province has its team of professional field officers, while the people learn to do for themselves what is required.

This simplified survey not only provides a picture of the setting for the literacy campaign but also indicates the obvious administrative structure for it. All that is required is an addition at each level for literacy work. At headquarters the campaign for the whole region is co-ordinated, standardized methods of organization and instruction are prepared, and arrangements made for the provision of teaching material in the languages required and training in its use, and for the inspection of field work. The campaign is planned against a statistical survey of target figures, and distribution and expansion are controlled by what is considered practical and by the need for region-wide consistency. The field officer in each province co-ordinates the provincial section of the campaign, ensures that local application of standardized methods is appropriate, arranges local training courses and supervises the schemes as they come into operation.

A literacy scheme covers a convenient area which coincides with a traditional social unit, or part of such a unit if it is large. The size of a scheme is determined by the amount of attention the scheme organizer must give to each class during a session, reckoned in terms of distances and accessibility. The scheme is so to speak the property of the local government body which is responsible for its conduct and the direct employer of the organizer and the part-time instructors. Each town ward or village within the scheme area has a class limited to 25 pupils. At the end of a session the class is disbanded and a new class assembled. In the first instance none of the pupils of an outgoing class is re-admitted to the new class because others are waiting their turn. There are two sessions each year. When the desired target is reached the literacy scheme ceases as such, but its machinery is in working order for any post-literacy programme which may be introduced (e.g. the teaching of English).

Planning and Operating the Campaign

The plan for the literacy campaign was prepared under the colonial form of government, but the launching of the campaign coincided with the introduction of a parliamentary ministerial system. Responsibility for the literacy campaign was included as an item in the portfolio of the Minister for Local Government and Community Development.

The mass literacy experiment has been a success so far as it has gone. Three mothers arrive for a lesson.
(Photo: Unesco.)



The immediate task was to develop democratic processes at all levels of government both regional and local, and to foster intelligent participation and a better general understanding of what was going on. The literacy campaign fits into this project very aptly. The first field officers for the campaign in the provinces were administrative officers. These men were professionally engaged on the reconstruction of local government and already intimately familiar with the different patterns of traditional social organization into which democratic methods had to be fitted. Thus they had qualifications more valuable at the start of the campaign than professional teaching experience.

Subsequently a re-shuffle of portfolios transferred the literacy campaign to the Minister of Education and Social Services, and adult education officers took over the conduct of the campaign in the provinces from the administrative officers. The first arrangement was appropriate at the time, but once the campaign has been established and absorbed into the life of the province the need is for undistracted attention and meticulous supervision of method, and the campaign becomes a professional operation proper to the education department. There is a proviso, however, that the literacy campaign must be treated as a separate section of the departmental work with its own establishment. The campaign must be regarded as an emergency measure like a vaccination drive. Its success demands speed and efficiency. The aim is to be through with it as quickly as possible so that the uses of literacy may be exploited. The great number of class-instructors required are, of necessity, men of very slight education, but they can handle a suitable teaching method if those that supervise them have no other preoccupations. Adult literacy work differs greatly in technique and atmosphere from formal education for children, and experience has shown that the less the literacy classes are associated with the schools, the better.

A committee of ministers and professional officers meets periodically to consider the progress of certain allied measures for general public enlightenment, of which the literacy campaign is one. Recommendations and policy decisions are made, and the allocation of available funds is discussed.

In the provinces no special committees are needed or desirable. The intimate association of welfare projects with local government bodies and their control of field work has been explained. The literacy campaign, the schemes and the classes are automatically included in the agenda for the provincial committee and the Native Authority, district and village councils. It must be remembered that these projects are the main public preoccupations affecting most of the community.

Financial arrangements for the literacy campaign, like its administrative and operational structure, follow an established model. The staff at headquarters and the adult education officers in the provinces are permanent civil servants of the Education Department and their salaries and expenses at standard professional rates according to qualifications and seniority, are paid by the regional government. The scheme organizer and part-time instructors are directly employed by the Native Authority and receive their pay along with the other Native Authority servants in their district. These payments are grant-aided from regional funds on the same principle as is applied to the staffing of schools belonging to native authorities and voluntary agencies (mostly missionary societies in Northern Nigeria). These grants are reckoned in terms of standardized minimum requirements for schemes approved for operation as part of the regional campaign and are at standardized rates, regardless of qualifications. They are block grants assuring minimum payments, but native authorities may, and often do, make up the salaries of organizers who have been seconded from posts carrying higher pay, and sometimes employ extra organizers from their own funds. The standard payment for part-time instructors has been reckoned to represent a token-reward for their services, not large enough to encourage them to relax in their normal full-time occupations in which they must continue when their share in the campaign is finished. No attempt has been made to recruit instructors willing to give their services free of charge; the response would not have produced the numbers required, and the suggestion would have been out of keeping with custom. Wherever possible, private classes opened by public-spirited people have been absorbed into the campaign so that advice and training in method may ensure success. This recognition has been appreciated, and the standard reward has been gladly accepted, as it is the equivalent of the gift traditionally given by a chief to those who have performed some service in the public interest. Some native authorities are inclined to give larger rewards than others, but some are richer, and some are keener than others, and their interests properly lie with their own sections of the community, while the region is concerned that at least the minimum should be achieved everywhere and that all should have fair shares of the regional funds available.

The pupils pay no tuition fees. Regional funds subsidize the production of teaching material and a limited range of follow-up reading matter which is sold at reasonable prices. Teaching material and stationery for the classes are paid for by the Native Authority, and classrooms and equipment are provided from District Council funds. Classrooms are built by communal labour and payment made only for materials that cannot be gathered by hand and for the services of skilled artisans if they are required—the class belongs to the people it serves.

The purpose of this article has been to describe the literacy campaign in Northern Nigeria, and to show that its purpose and setting dictate its character. In its circumstances the campaign was clearly a task for the Government through its appropriate department. The essence of the campaign is that the region requires, and must make provision for, consistent progress throughout the territory, and success depends on the close association of field work with the normal daily life of people with almost exclusively parochial interests at this stage.

The opinions expressed in this article are personal to the writer.

ORGANIZATION AND FINANCING OF LITERACY CAMPAIGNS IN SPAIN

ADOLFO MAÍLLO GARCIA

BACKGROUND

The first attempt to combat illiteracy in Spain by means of a special campaign was made in 1920. A Board for the Eradication of Illiteracy was then set up. It was unable to go into action, however, because the funds allotted to it were withdrawn by the decree of 6 August of the same year.

The idea was revived in 1922 but the amount budgeted for it was smaller than before and, although the programme drawn up by the Central Committee set up for that purpose was first rate, there was no way of gauging its feasibility in practice as the appropriation was dropped in the next biennial budget and the activities came to a standstill almost before they had begun.

The number of illiterates declined as a result of the increase in the number of primary schools, offering educational opportunities to sectors of the child population previously deprived of them, but the existence of masses of adult illiterates who had been unable to attend school during their childhood continued to have a depressing effect on the statistics. However, no official move to come to grips with the problem was made until 1948, when a Presidential Order was issued requiring heads of undertakings employing staff in districts remote from areas where there were schools to take the necessary steps to eradicate illiteracy among the adults and young people in their charge.

NATIONAL ANTI-ILLITERACY BOARD

This measure failed to produce the desired results, and the State accordingly decided to organize literacy activities on a large scale, setting up a central body to direct and guide them. These plans took concrete shape in the decree of 10 March 1950 under which a National Anti-Illiteracy Board was set up and authorization was given to the provincial education councils and the municipal education boards to constitute themselves, respectively, provincial and local Anti-Illiteracy Boards.

The board is an inter-ministerial body working under the chairmanship of the Minister of National Education and consisting of representatives of government departments whose work has a bearing on public education, together with experts representing technical and social interests. Under its constitution, it includes representatives of the War Office, the Home Office, the Ministry of Labour, and of the trade unions, the Frente de Juventudes y Sección Femenina (Youth Front and Women's Movement), as well as the Patriarch-Bishop of Madrid-Alcala, the Head of the Central Office of the Servicio Español del Magisterio (Spanish Teachers' Association), the Director of the San José de Calasañz Institute of Education, two primary school inspectors and three Ministry of Education nominees with full voting rights. The Director-General of Primary Education serves as vice-chairman, and an Inspector-General of equal rank is in charge of the secretariat.

In 1953, the board's membership was extended to include the Ministry's Commissioner for Cultural Development and a representative of its National Statistical Institute, representatives of the Admiralty and the Air Ministry, and the Professor of Education at the University of Madrid. The provincial boards were similarly strengthened by the addition of representatives of the statistical services and the trade unions.

The task of the board, under the constituent decree, is to 'determine suitable measures for the persecution, in various parts of Spain, of a widespread and rapid campaign of cultural development, with the aim of ensuring the eradication of illiteracy, under the Ministry's auspices and the board's guidance and direction'.

The board operates by means of plenary meetings and a standing committee. The latter deals with current business, does the preparatory work for the plenary meetings, to which it reports on its activities, and makes proposals regarding the necessary action for the technical conduct of the campaign and the annual grant of subventions to the provincial boards.

The work of the National Board is carried out in close co-operation with the schools, through the medium of the General-Directorate for Primary Education. This link extends to the provincial level, for although the provincial boards are presided over by the respective civil governors, their secretariats come under the jurisdiction of the chief inspectors for primary education.

This system of inter-connexion makes it possible to direct most of the activities of the adult evening classes, which run for two to five months and have long been a regular feature of life in Spain, towards literacy work. The classes are held in primary schools and—except in a few cases where more intensive campaigns are undertaken—are in the hands of State teachers.

PRINCIPAL MEASURES

At first, the National Board's efforts were concentrated on backward areas for which a special drive was needed, its work being conducted through cultural missions. Starting in 1953, it arranged for the provincial boards to prepare statistics and a nominal roll of all illiterates resident in each locality, so as to obtain an exact picture of the geographical distribution of illiteracy and its relative density, and of the professional and social status of illiterates.

At the same time, the board embarked on two types of activity. The first was a national prize competition for the best paper on the subject, 'Causes of and remedies for illiteracy, with an indication of practical measures of all kinds to eliminate it, to be applied in harmony with the geographical, economic, psychological and social characteristics of the various regions and territories of Spain'. The entries which were awarded the three first prizes made a very useful contribution to the plans and work of the board.

In the second place, practical working methods in the various provinces had to be unified, at the same time leaving each province free to choose, from among the methods proposed by the National Board, those most suited to local requirements. In a ministerial order of 20 July 1953, the board specified the following as the main means to be used in the literacy campaign: (a) special literacy classes for adults; (b) mobile and temporary schools for scattered communities; (c) open-air schools and centres for illiterates, on a residential basis.

The vital point, however, was to dispel the boredom which descends on adults when they start being taught by slow methods fitted, in scope and vocabulary, for the child mind. To eliminate that technical defect, the National Board organized a public competition with a view to making a selection of rapid methods for teaching reading and writing which would be better adapted to the psychological requirements of adult illiterates. Two short courses based on such methods have already been held, one in 1954 and the other in 1957, and the board now has seven tentative methods which are to be finally tested to see which is most efficient, and which will permit a time saving of 50 to 70 per cent—as compared with the traditional routine methods—in learning the instrumental techniques of education.

CAMPAIGN METHODS

In Spain—and the position in many other countries is no doubt fairly similar—not every illiterate can be exactly fitted into a definitive evaluation scale. This is not only because each individual is always a 'special case', in a class by himself, but also because

illiteracy is basically due to social conditions determining the rate of social and cultural development.

There are relatively accessible areas in Spain, where illiteracy is the result of generally familiar economic, psychological and cultural factors and where campaign methods are comparatively simple. But there are also mountainous regions, remote from means of communication, where the way of life has remained unchanged for generations, despite the sanguine dreams of certain reformers.

Each of these areas requires different campaign methods. Of the three methods mentioned, the one that is giving the best results in what may be termed the 'normal illiteracy' areas is that of the camp schools for illiterates.

CAMP SCHOOLS FOR ILLITERATES

These are run on a residential basis, usually in buildings located in the open country or in small centres and equipped with everything necessary for their operation.

They are attended by successive groups of 50 boys or girls aged 13 to 16, and the courses last from 30 to 40 days. No charge whatever is made.

The schools are managed by an administrative director, who looks after the boarding arrangements, and a technical director, who is responsible for organizing the literacy and elementary culture classes. He is invariably a teacher who has specialized in the rapid methods referred to above.

CULTURALLY BACKWARD REGIONS AND FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

In the case of the zones that are difficult of access, remote from the large centres of communication and the bustle of modern life, the problem is one of activating community life in general; fundamental education is therefore needed. Obviously, the focus, structure and form of fundamental education in these regions of Spain are very different from what would be suitable for parts of the world whose social and cultural level was surpassed by the inhabitants of our less-developed regions many centuries ago. Here, as in all matters concerning culture, the question is one of relative levels which are difficult enough to assess 'from the outside'—even by the simplest of criteria and still more so when a comprehensive view of cultural facts is taken, going beyond the narrow confines of scholastic instruction and entering the spheres of sociology and cultural anthropology.

Two years ago the National Board issued a 'Questionnaire for the study of culturally backward areas' which is used by the provincial boards as a practical means of obtaining a scientific knowledge of that type of area. Cultural missions responsible for imparting fundamental education have been organized in La Cabrera (León), Las Hurdes (Cáceres), Santiago de la Espada (Jaén) and La Almogía (Málaga). Another is to be set up in Siberia Extremeña (Badajoz) next autumn.¹

In addition to the teaching staff of the primary schools, these missions are assisted in their work by the Commission for Cultural Development, with its mobile teams and its experts in audio-visual media, and by the specialized agricultural, veterinary, medical and nursing services in the provinces, lawyers specializing in trade union questions (particularly in social problems), and travelling lecturers sent out by the women's movement for giving instruction in homecraft and rural handicrafts. These combined teams are directed by a primary school inspector from the province concerned; they work under the supervision of the secretariat of the National Board.

1. See: Julián Juez Viente, 'Spanish Educational Missions', in Vol. VI, No. 4.

THE ANNUAL PLAN

In January of each year, the provincial boards prepare and submit to the National Board the annual operational plan. The latter specifies the number and location of the classes to be organized and includes, where applicable, a separate report and operational plan covering fundamental education.

The plan is accompanied by a draft budget showing the anticipated costs, and the National Board, after examining the two, grants a subvention according to the funds at its disposal.

The costs of the evening literacy classes for adults and of the camp schools for illiterates are met by the Ministry of National Education, independently of the board's budget.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE CAMPAIGN

For reasons of climate and in order to fit in with work requirements, the campaign period for the year extends from October to May, with slight variations from one province to another.

Each operation is preceded by a propaganda drive designed to arouse a popular desire for learning and to stimulate co-operation in social projects. With this object in mind, the National Board held an open competition in 1954 and selected four posters which are regularly put on display in the villages concerned. In addition, a flow of publicity comes from the press and radio. At the present time, a decision is pending concerning an open prize competition for a scenario for a short propaganda film in furtherance of the campaign. In their capacity as chairmen of the provincial boards, the Civil Governors also encourage the local mayors to give the scheme their effective co-operation.

On the technical side, short courses for briefing teachers on rapid methods for the teaching of reading and writing are held every year in the provinces with the highest illiteracy rates. Each fundamental education mission is preceded by meetings and seminars, under the leadership of its director, on questions of sociology, social psychology and the study and appraisal of folklore. Prior discussions between technical experts in the various branches ensure proper co-ordination between all the services concerned.

LITERACY AND ELEMENTARY CULTURE

The National Board is not in favour of treating the eradication of illiteracy among adults purely as a matter of imparting mechanical skills; it insists that these people should be given an opportunity of acquiring the knowledge and habits essential for their integration into the community. Each literacy campaign is coupled with the presentation of a minimum cultural programme, the assimilation of which entitles the new literate to the award of a Special Certificate for Primary Studies.

As the annual campaigns usually last from a month and a half to three months, a minimum of two courses is necessary to obtain the certificate. Occasionally, on account of the remoteness of the illiterates' place of residence from the school, or for various psychological reasons, it is necessary to provide new literates with educational material for independent or semi-independent work, after terminating the first course or immediately after leaving the camp school (where the classes are particularly intensive).

This raises a difficult technical problem which the secretariat of the National Board has tried to solve by making the following arrangements:

1. On leaving the classes, each new literate receives a kit consisting of the following:
(a) one reader for beginners and another more advanced reader; (b) an elementary arithmetic book, illustrated; (c) ruled and squared note books; (d) a pencil-holder, indiarubber and box of coloured pencils; (e) six publications suitable for young people.

2. For three months, the teacher from the nearest school visits new literates once a week, sets new work and corrects the work done since the last visit. Half-way through this period, they are provided with an elementary primary school encyclopaedia.
3. At the end of the three months, each new literate is supplied with two fairly advanced readers, a small popular-type missal, a copy of *Don Quixote*, school edition, and a map of Spain.

Continuity of cultural work with newly literate adults is an extremely thorny problem which exercises adult education experts throughout the world. It is not easy to find books suited to the interests and needs of this kind of pupil, who is almost never able to engage in direct studies but who nevertheless needs to be taught according to his capabilities.

The National Board has organized a public prize competition for an elementary reader which would meet that need. The closing date for entries was October 1957, and it is to be hoped that the competition will bring to light a suitable instrument for cultural continuation work with new literates.

SOURCE OF FUNDS

Many and difficult as are the problems confronting conscientious and effective literacy work, the greatest stumbling-block is the meagreness of the funds available. Educational activities are costly, and their extension to illiterate adults adds greatly to the cost, especially if it is sought to endow those people with more than a bare minimum of elementary culture.

The provincial and local authorities are not required to make any contribution towards the cost of literacy work, and private contributions are strictly nil. This means that the financial burden of literacy work is borne entirely by the budget of the Ministry of National Education, from which the National Board receives an annual appropriation of 4 million pesetas. Of this amount, 1,750,000 pesetas is assigned to the camp schools for illiterates. The main item is the cost of supporting the adult evening classes, since over 16 million of the total of 22 million pesetas allocated to these classes under the Ministry's budget is devoted to literacy work.

Mention should be made of the excellent work done by the War Office in developing literacy among recruits arriving at the barracks.

THE LITERACY CAMPAIGN IN URUGUAY

ROBERTO ABADIE SORIANO

NATIONAL COMMISSION AND EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE FOR THE GENERAL LITERACY CAMPAIGN IN URUGUAY

At the instigation of the writer Justino Zavala Muniz, then Minister of Public Instruction, the Uruguayan Council of Ministers adopted a decree on 12 May 1957 setting up the National Commission and Executive Committee for the General Literacy Campaign, based on the following principles:

1. In accordance with the principle of compulsory education laid down in the Constitution of the Republic, it is the duty of every citizen to acquire the knowledge that will enable him to develop his personality and achieve the independence of mind essential to a member of society.

2. Even though the illiteracy rate in Uruguay is low compared with that in other American States, the situation in this respect falls short of the standards which might be expected in view of the efforts being made by both people and government to reach the level of culture necessary to a society like ours which esteems the values of the mind as lasting values, and has taken them as the basis on which it has created the peaceful and democratic conditions under which it lives.

For the purpose of planning and organizing a general literacy campaign, therefore, the decree set up the following bodies:

The National Commission, consisting of representatives of university, educational, cultural, teaching, student, journalistic, art, broadcasting, sports, physical training and other institutions;

The Commission's Executive Committee, consisting of university students, members of the professions, professors, teachers, intellectuals, artists, writers, senators, deputies, politicians, journalists, industrialists, businessmen, etc. The decree designated Mr. Héctor A. Gerona, Court Registrar, as chairman of the committee;

The Departmental Commissions, in the various departments of the Republic, consisting of representatives of the educational authorities, the educational development boards, teaching organizations, the municipal authorities, the Commissariat of Police and locally stationed military units.

ILLITERACY SURVEY CENSUSES

At the time when the campaign was launched, there were insufficient statistical data available to give an indication of the number of illiterates in the country, and it was therefore necessary to take a census to enable the illiteracy rate to be determined. Account was to be taken of the international agreements concerning the definition of the terms 'illiterate' and 'illiteracy', as approved at the literacy and adult education seminars organized by Unesco and the Organization of American States in Caracas in 1948 and in Rio de Janeiro in 1949.

The purpose of the census, therefore, was to provide as accurate data as possible on the following matters: (a) the number of illiterates of school age, from 6 to 14; and (b) the number of adult illiterates, aged 15 and upwards—in other words, the number of post-school illiterates (age 15 as the lower age limit for the adult population is that recommended by the United Nations Population Commission and the Inter-American Institute of Statistics, for census-taking in the Americas).

INITIAL TRIAL TESTS

With the object of ascertaining the extent of illiteracy, so as to be able to adopt appropriate means for its eradication, the Executive Committee decided to take a national census of illiterates. Considering the difficulties which would have to be overcome in executing such a vast plan, however, and in order to acquire experience in this entirely new field, it was decided to make a preliminary trial in the form of three partial censuses on experimental lines: one in a section of the capital of the Republic and two in rural areas (one farming and the other stock-raising).

In the absence of any earlier experience which could serve as a guide, the whole undertaking had to be organized from zero. This called for decisions concerning the general frame of the census; the census index system; the operational arrangements for the central register, district registers and teams of census takers; the preparation of general and special instructions; the procedures for compiling and tabulating the results, etc.

This task was carried out with the assistance of hundreds of persons and on the basis of co-ordinated efforts by public and private institutions: ministries, educational bodies, public services, military units, the Police Institute, cultural, social and sports institutions,

corporate bodies, members of the professions, teachers, students, educational development boards, the press, the radio and the public in general.

So that the Departmental Commissions for the literacy campaign, set up throughout the Republic, could obtain census experience similar to that mentioned, they were advised by the Executive Committee to take simultaneous censuses in urban and rural areas.

ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS

Following these experimental and partial censuses, the Secretariat of the Executive Committee found:

1. That illiteracy among children of school age (6-14) is very slight, in fact almost non-existent.
2. That the percentage figures for illiteracy among adults (aged 15 and upwards), broken down by types of area, were as follows: urban areas: capital of the Republic, 2.05, towns in the interior, 2.92-6.73; suburban areas, 10.33; agricultural areas, 12; stock-raising areas, 13.50; frontier zones, 18-20.
3. That the percentage of adult illiterates is higher among the older age groups, 54 per cent of them being over 50 years of age, thus proving that adult illiteracy is inherited from the past.
4. That after deduction of the percentage for illiterates aged over 50, the rate of what might suitably be termed 'active illiteracy', i.e. illiteracy for persons aged 15-50 is reduced to a bare 3 per cent.

With the object of ascertaining the illiteracy rate among workers, the Executive Committee approached the Chamber of Industry with a request that all industrial establishments throughout the country send in the relevant information. Fifty per cent of the establishments consulted sent in nil returns. For the remainder, the rate worked out at 6 per cent for the general body of workers.

GENERAL PLANNING OF THE CAMPAIGN

In the general plan of the literacy campaign it is stated that the purpose of the campaign is to impart literacy and fundamental education to young and older adult illiterates and to ensure co-operation in all possible ways with the National Council for Primary and Teacher Education in imparting literacy to children of school age who have still not acquired it.

The campaign is to consist of: (a) literacy work, with the main object of teaching illiterates reading, writing and elementary arithmetic; and (b) fundamental education designed to equip new literates to look after their health, conserve and exploit the country's natural resources, improve production techniques, use their free time in a pleasurable manner, interest themselves in family life, the community and the promotion of national and international understanding—to fit them, in short, to enjoy the full benefits of the common cultural heritage and to live worthy lives as members of a community within a democratic State.

To that end, literacy and fundamental education centres are to be set up in towns, villages and rural areas in which groups of not fewer than ten adult illiterates are found. The centres will be in the charge of serving or retired teachers and students training to be teachers who offer to co-operate in the campaign.

They will be set up in public or private premises (schools, State or municipal buildings, or premises belonging to workers' or employers' associations, factories, barracks, cultural or sports groups, etc.) and will operate for periods determined by each Departmental Commission on days and at times best suited to ensure the pupils' attendance. Where private premises have to be used, they must comply with the requisite sanitary standards for centres of instruction and belong to institutions of a democratic, secular and non-political nature.

The teachers in charge of the centres will keep a register of pupils and be required to send monthly returns of attendances, on special forms, to the Departmental Commission concerned. They will receive monthly remuneration, in the form of an allowance. In the case of serving teachers, moreover, mention of their work on behalf of the campaign will be made in their service records, and such work will be regarded as specially meritorious service where applications for competitive posts are concerned.

It is to the collaboration of school inspectors, whether departmental or local, that the greatest importance is attached, for they are the technical education officers responsible for supervising the literacy centres in operation and advising the Departmental Commission concerned on the measures to be adopted in every case.

RAISING THE CULTURAL LEVEL

The second stage of the literacy and fundamental education campaign for adults will take the form of a general drive and will concentrate on giving literacy a firm basis and raising the cultural level of the nation as a whole. The full development of this second stage depends on the collaboration of every citizen and of the leading forces of the nation: members of the professions, teachers, professors, artists, authors, journalists and students, cultural, sports, employers' and workers' associations, industrial and commercial concerns, philanthropic societies, etc.

Equally essential is co-ordination between the activities conducted by public and private bodies in the following fields: public health, nutrition, housing, labour, industry, trade, colonization, education, the professions, insurance, credit and savings, physical training, recreation, co-operative enterprise, etc.

The National Commission will do its best to see that provision for sufficient funds to enable classes and courses to be run for young and adults in the towns, villages and rural areas is clearly made in the national budget, and will submit for consideration by the authorities, a Bill on compulsory primary education suited to the present economic and social situation.

TEXTBOOK FOR TEACHING ADULTS TO READ

The only reading books in Uruguay are those designed for the teaching of children. There is no reader for adults. On the strength of having been the author (jointly with the teacher and poet Humberto Zarrilli) of the various series of reading books which, after a selective competition, have been in official use in our national schools since 1928, the writer of the present article was given the difficult task of meeting that need. The new textbook now prepared—the publishing rights of which have been handed over to the Executive Committee for the campaign—is based on the global method, combined with the phonetic method.

READING MATTER FOR NEW LITERATES

To consolidate the campaign results, the Executive Committee intends to publish a series of profusely illustrated primers, prepared by specialists and pedagogical experts, which will serve as a mine of attractive and varied reading matter for new literates on such vital topics as health, food, the soil, citizenship, the family, society, agricultural credits, insurance, co-operatives, the Motherland, traditions, etc.

UNESCO'S CONTRIBUTION TO THE LITERACY CAMPAIGN: THE PRODUCTION OF AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

On the occasion of the General Conference of Unesco held in Montevideo in November and December 1954, Mr. Justino Zavala Muniz, the Uruguayan Minister of Public Instruction, requested, on behalf of his Government, Unesco's co-operation in organizing a centre in Montevideo for the production of audio-visual materials for the

literacy campaign and for adult education purposes—such as illustrated primers, posters, gramophone records, films, filmstrips, radio talks, exhibitions, etc.

Unesco included the implementation of this project in its 1955-56 programme, appointed an expert on the preparation of this type of material, allocated a sum of \$8,000 (recently supplemented by another of \$4,000) for the purchase of equipment and working material, and awarded a fellowship to enable a Uruguayan teacher to extend his knowledge of adult education.

The execution of this project is going steadily forward, under the guidance of the Chilean educationist, Miss María Teresa Femenías, who is an expert on audio-visual aids. Plans are under way for the organization of a technically equipped production centre for audio-visual aids to carry out the following tasks:

1. Making plans, and carrying them into effect when approved, for the production and distribution of audio-visual aids (such as radio, gramophone, film and photographic material, posters, primers, exhibitions, etc.) necessary for the most effective development of the plans for: (a) the general literacy campaign; (b) fundamental education; (c) primary and teacher education in such aspects as may be specifically indicated.
2. Co-operating in the training of teaching and administrative staff in the proper use and distribution of the audio-visual media produced.
3. Co-operating in general welfare campaigns on such questions as appreciation of national values, health and hygiene, dissemination of knowledge on agricultural work and industrial development, etc.
4. Disseminating information concerning the United Nations and its Specialized Agencies.

The first stage of this important project—the technical training of the teaching staff who are to be responsible for these activities—has already been completed. For this purpose Miss Femenías gave intensive theoretical and practical courses on audio-visual methods, to fit the teachers to prepare all types of these teaching aids.

The second stage, now nearing completion, includes the organization of the production centre for audio-visual material, the training of its technical staff, arrangements for its operation, etc.

Once the centre is in full operation, it will be able to assist in the specialized training of teachers from other American countries.

COSTS DEFRAID BY THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE BOARDS AND ITS MEMBERS

From the very outset of its work, the Executive Committee met its costs entirely from the funds collected by the members of its Finance Committee. The general budget for 1956 included an allocation of 24,000 pesos to cover the costs of the general literacy campaign. This sum, plus the committee's private resources, covers the cost of allowances for the teachers and student teachers who are responsible for the literacy and fundamental education centres, inspection visits, printing of material, forms, census cards, propaganda, etc.

LITERACY WORK OF EDUCATIONAL CENTRES IN FRONTIER ZONES

The centres operate in all parts of the Republic in which the census has revealed the existence of adult illiterates.

The Executive Committee proposes, for next year, to extend the campaign to the frontier zones bordering on Brazil (Departments of Artigas, Rivera, Cerro Largo, Treinta y Tres and Rocha), where the main concentrations of adult illiterates have been found.

ORGANIZATIONAL AND FINANCIAL PROBLEMS OF LITERACY CAMPAIGNS IN INDIA

A. R. DESHPANDE

THE PROBLEM

With all the efforts, both voluntary and governmental in the past and under the present five-year plans, the problem of illiteracy in India still remains staggering. Its solution, like a mirage, appears almost within reach—just on the horizon—but moves its range onwards and ever onwards. The last census (1951) showed that of the population of 360 millions, 82 per cent are still illiterate, living mostly in the five million villages and hamlets which comprise the real India.

Compared to the size of the Indian giant of illiteracy, the efforts made so far appear insignificant. It cannot be said that all possible financial resources and manpower have been used, but on the other hand one cannot contend—considering the other pressing problems of top priority in India, such as poverty, disease and food—that literacy and adult education have not been given their due and proper share. In an economy of insufficiency, the planners have to explore every possibility of making resources go as far as possible.

The tremendous magnitude of the task, the inadequacy of finances and the shortage of well-equipped agencies to carry out the work—these have been the three factors from which the organizational and financial problems involved in launching and running literacy campaigns in India arose.

A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

New problems arose from efforts to solve other problems. Ever since the dawn of social and political awakening in India, the reformer, the politician, the educator and the educated few have all proclaimed the illiteracy of the masses as the one great obstacle in the march of progress. That the attack on illiteracy had to be double-pronged was evident from the first. On the one flank, the elementary education of children had to spread and become compulsory and universal. In fact it had to be mass education. The late G. K. Gokhale, whom Mahatma Gandhi regarded as his political 'Guru' (master), said in the first decade of the century: 'The primary purpose of mass education is to banish illiteracy from the land. The quality of education is a matter of importance that comes only after illiteracy has been banished.'

Adult education was to be the other flank, addressed to the vast number of adults who had no schooling opportunities.

In the first stage of pre-independence adult education (1885-1947), when there was even willingness to sacrifice the quality of elementary education, adult education could not be more than teaching the three R's. The attitude of the Imperial Central and the Provincial Governments being on the whole one of benevolent indifference, nothing more than a pittance of grants could be expected. The voluntary effort was just a trickle—a few night classes conducted in large cities by public-spirited teachers and reformers. Actual literacy campaigns on a large scale were not possible, although literacy enthusiasts prepared various schemes. But there was little government help, and very little money—only unpaid workers, with a spirit of selfless service, aiming particularly at quick results.

Such schemes are now forgotten but one or two can be referred to as instances. Shri A. B. Mande, trained in the United States, worked out a scheme of mass literacy as early as in 1927. Failing government aid, he planned to raise finances on a co-



operative basis. It did not work, and it is futile now to diagnose the causes. Shri S. R. Bhagwat, then chairman of the Bombay Provincial Board of Adult Education, prepared a detailed plan for 'Adult Education and a Campaign against Illiteracy'. The salient feature was 'home classes'. The literate member of the household was expected to teach the illiterate members. This too did not work on any appreciable scale.

PROBLEMS AND LESSONS OF PRE-INDEPENDENCE

A short-lived phase of about two years began in 1937 when the Indian National Congress accepted office for the first time and formed ministries in several provinces. The Congress quitted office and the effort died down in the general tumult of the second world war and the political struggle for independence.

This was the phase of government-sponsored and organized mass literacy campaigns. The shortcomings and problems of the first stage were removed by provincial governments taking up the major share of financing them. The organization could have been left to voluntary agencies, but except in large cities such as Bombay, Calcutta, Madras and Mysore, these had scarcely developed enough to shoulder the responsibility. The solution at hand was that a government department itself should take it up. This was also justified in view of the popular opinion that unless governments put all the machinery to the task, no appreciable results were possible. Education Departments were considered to be the legitimate agency, since literacy was adult education—a facet of the general programme of education. But government financing had limits, and no increase of staff was possible. The Director of Public Instruction had to organize what staff he had through his normal machinery of divisional, district and sub-inspectors of schools, with a few supervisors on a small part-time remuneration basis. Home classes or the 'Make your home literate' campaign was a good idea for urban areas where high school and college teachers and students could come forward. In the rural areas, however, organized literacy classes were unavoidable. The primary school teachers had to do the teaching as additional work without payment. Where the award of certificates of approbation was not a sufficient inducement, some provinces offered two rupees per adult made literate. The Government was to provide the equipment for literacy classes, supervision, inspection and free supply of a journal or

a weekly paper, and a small collection of books to serve the needs of follow-up of the new literates.

We find then the Central Government waking up to its responsibility but its role did not go further than issuing enabling directives. The Adult Education Committee of the Central Advisory Board of Education recommended: 'While the literacy campaign is only one aspect of the adult education movement, the prevalence of illiteracy at the present time makes it the aspect to which immediate attention must be devoted.'

The Governments of Assam, Bihar and the United Provinces took up these campaigns on a somewhat large scale. Bihar can be chosen as a typical instance.

Exhortations by high Government dignitaries, official pressure and persuasion and propaganda by advisory bodies nominated by the Government, did generate initial enthusiasm, resulting in big quantitative gains. But everything did not go well. The quantity was without a stable quality. The problems were how to ensure a standard of attainment and what to do with the numbers which were facing the danger of losing what little they had been taught. The area was too large and beyond the scope of supervision and guidance by the existing machinery. So the area was restricted to one *thana* (police circle) in a district, quality of work emphasized, and post-literacy classes started.

Lack of enthusiasm among the illiterate population and irregularity of attendance at literacy classes continued to be a serious problem. Stressing the advantages of literacy and the disadvantages of illiteracy failed to attract learners or to counteract the 'wild rumours started by wicked people'. Willing teachers of the right type were slow to come forward to work on a voluntary basis. Misunderstanding of the term 'literacy' persisted. Some regarded ability to sign one's name as sufficient, while others understood it to mean teaching of the alphabet and numerals. Ability to read and write a simple message—the census definition—was insisted on by a few. To sum up, the literacy campaigns suffered on the whole from insufficient planning of literacy courses and their content and inability to provide machinery to ensure a reasonable standard of attainment. Follow-up work was inadequate to meet the real and large dangers of relapse.

THE THIRD PHASE: EMERGENCE OF SOCIAL EDUCATION

Against this background the third phase of literacy campaigns started, soon after attainment of independence in 1947. The lessons of past efforts were fresh in the minds of the educationists as personal experiences. There was a general consensus amongst educationists that mere literacy campaigns did not result in stable gains and relapses were very frequent.

So adult education emerged as social education. The significant change was that though literacy retained its important place, it became part of an all-round social education programme. To put it succinctly, the former concept of 'literacy with adult education' changed to 'social education with literacy'.

ROLE OF THE CENTRAL AUTHORITY

Through the Ministry of Education the Central Government began to assume an important role. It assumed responsibility for substantial grants to voluntary organizations and provincial governments. The target of removal of 50 per cent of illiteracy within five years was recommended to provincial governments. Co-ordination was secured through the Central Advisory Board of Education and its standing committee on social education. Conferences of provincial heads of social education were organized. Preparation of literature, audio-visual aids and other material for adult education was undertaken.

Women also attend literacy classes in India. (Photo: Unesco.)



PROBLEMS OF PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS

When the provincial governments began falling into line, several organizational and financial problems arose, from state level to the village level. Should there be a separate Department of Social Education? This was recommended by the Mysore seminar. There were some advantages in having a department solely devoted to social education, but it would have lost contact with the vast network of agencies of the Education Department going down to the village. So a compromise was effected. The Education Departments were strengthened in some provinces by adding a large section to the existing machinery up to the village level, and in others by adding a few officers. The Central Provinces and Berar (Madhya Pradesh) added large and well-planned machinery to the Directorate of Education, while Bombay appointed regional committees and provided staff for them.

Coming to the village level, the problem as regards literacy campaigns was how to induce the teacher to conduct a literacy class. Past experience showed that continuous work could not be expected without payment. How was the teacher to be paid for the literacy work? Some said he should be given rewards in cash for every adult made literate; that would ensure his interest. On the other hand it could be said that teachers would not work for the distant prospect of rewards. Evasion and deceit would be possible, if the standard of tests were not maintained. The other alternative was to pay part-time monthly remuneration. This had the disadvantage that the teacher might prolong teaching without worrying about results. Again a compromise had to be found. Madhya Pradesh started a system of remuneration, plus rewards for each adult made literate.

TENDENCY TO TAKE SHORT CUTS

Provincial governments then organized measures to combat illiteracy on a very large scale. They organized short term campaigns and continuous literacy classes all over the area. It was, however, soon realized that liquidation of illiteracy to the extent of 50 per cent was a task far beyond their financial, administrative and personnel resources. A tendency to take short cuts was natural under the stress and strain. There were a few

enthusiasts who believed—and some of them still believe—that Dr. Laubach's 'each one teach one' formula could achieve the miracle, and at small cost. In Madras a campaign to obtain solemn declarations from educated persons that each one would teach one was actually started and thousands of such declarations were obtained. Results are not available, and even if they were, there is no system of checking. Madhya Pradesh also came under the spell of the formula. It went a step further and said 'each one teach two' and wanted to legislate for compulsion on students, teachers and government officials. Counsels of wisdom prevailed in the end and no such legislation was introduced.

There was a good deal of talk, however, of legislative measures to compel the illiterate to learn and the literate to teach. Nothing materialized, as on deeper consideration the futility of the scheme became obvious. Exhortation to follow the examples of Russia and China still loom large in the background, and one reads of schemes for the total eradication of illiteracy from India within three years, or even within one year.

The only practical way to mobilize volunteers to fight in the war against illiteracy is to organize village camps of students, teachers and educated citizens during vacations, for periods of say four to six weeks. Attainment of functional literacy cannot be expected from these camps, but the requirements of the census definition can surely be achieved. Such camps are always successful in creating the psychological ferment so necessary for the success of literacy work. They were tried in Madhya Pradesh for five years in succession, in addition to continuous literacy classes of longer duration.

THE CURRENT PHASE

The current phase of literacy work started with the introduction of the Community Development Programme in 1952, under the first Five-year Plan. Lessons learnt from the immediate past were that literacy campaigns should not be too big, but in proportion to the availability of the right type of trained teacher, and that standards of attainment should be high if literacy was to be functional. A much larger and better qualified machinery was necessary, specially at the area level, to guide and supervise the work and to apply the tests in a methodical manner.

Literacy campaigns as a state-wide effort have now ceased. Instead, a campaign usually covers a block of say a hundred villages. Adult educationists are now realizing that literacy is not the first step in adult education. Before that, a role for literacy in the life of the people must be created by spreading knowledge and by developing community organizations.

All education being a state government responsibility, the role of the central government is limited to advice, co-ordination and financial help. It is through these that the Central Authority exerts its influence for the betterment of standards. By financing posts of district social education organizers, the central authority has now established a link between the social education organizers in the community development areas and the Education Department. In addition, it is arranging training facilities for the key personnel of social education and encouraging research through the National Fundamental Education Centre and other voluntary organizations.

State governments have not, however, all played their part equally well. In some, social education with literacy is 'a must', while in others it only half-heartedly applied. Administrative organization varies and is inadequate in many states. It has not yet been fully realized that the state governments have to pursue substantially uniform policies if any significant advance is to be made to banish illiteracy.

LOCAL AUTHORITIES

Except in very large cities like Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi and Madras, local authorities such as corporations, municipalities and district councils have not yet reached a stage where they can play a role in literacy campaigns or social education work. The Delhi

municipality's special staff for social education does however conduct regular literacy classes and organizes campaigns in summer. It would be ideal to transfer responsibility for the work to local authorities when they reach that stage, but as matters stand at present, the role that each can and should play is one of sympathetic co-operation.

At the village level, the best type of organization to use would be the *gram panchayat* (village council). The *gram panchayats* are, however, still in a formative stage, and their financial position is weak. The state will have to give them all the money and equipment required. There is a school of thought which holds that in order to build up and strengthen the *gram panchayats*, social education work in the villages should be completely entrusted to them. Indeed, it is true that, if a *gram panchayat* handles the work, many problems like attendance of illiterates at classes may be solved. Following this line, the former M.P. State combined all social education work with that of *gram panchayats*. The results are yet to be assessed. It may perhaps be found later that, instead of strengthening the *gram panchayats*, this policy has weakened social education and literacy work.

VOLUNTARY AGENCIES

It is often urged that all social education work should be entrusted to voluntary organizations. The Bombay City Social Education League and the Mysore Adult Education Council are indeed outstanding successes. The former obtains half its finances and the latter almost its entire revenue from the state governments. There are certain undisputed advantages. Voluntary organizations do not suffer from the red tape which so often hampers government departments. Such voluntary organizations cannot, however, be multiplied indefinitely, for the obvious reason that their growth is due to the missionary zeal of exceptional persons, and such persons cannot be found everywhere. Yet it is recognized by all educationists that the growth of voluntary organizations has to be encouraged. Wherever possible the work is gradually being entrusted to them. The role which all voluntary agencies should play is to create the necessary conditions for the success of literacy and adult education work.

SOURCES OF FUNDS

Since social education including literacy is a part of the education programme of India, the main funds for it come from the one source, i.e., the taxes imposed by the central government and the state governments. It has however recently been possible to raise also voluntary contributions from the people for such items of social education programmes as buildings and equipment for a community centre, community listening radio sets, playgrounds and children's parks. But the public, whether rural or urban, has not yet been sufficiently persuaded to come forward with contributions for literacy. As a beginning, an attempt is being made in some areas to persuade the *gram panchayats* to provide lighting arrangements for the literacy classes, and the adult learner to buy his own slate, pencils and books. But generally the role of the *gram panchayats* is limited to attracting the illiterate to the class to learn. That being so, almost all the funds and equipment have to be found by the state governments.

There are doubts sometimes as to whether all this effort is leading us anywhere near the final target of liquidating illiteracy. For example, the eminent educationist Dr. Zakir Hussein, now Governor of Bihar, while inaugurating the Bihar Advisory Council of Education expressed the fear that since elementary education was failing to close the gap, illiteracy might be still in the ascendency.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE LITERACY CAMPAIGN IN MOROCCO

A. LAKHDAR

Every year since 1956, Morocco has organized a national literacy campaign, mainly through the machinery of the Moroccan League for Fundamental Education and Literacy Work. The article below contains information about this League, its operation, activities and resources. Anyone who has recently travelled in Morocco will have seen a poster, thousands of copies of which have been printed, showing the sultan, with open arms, calling on the people to come and learn and, below, a little school to which men, women and children are flocking. It is to be seen even in the tiniest hamlets. This was the means chosen to launch the first literacy campaign, which was preceded by the distribution of 3 million leaflets and brought to the notice of the public by a liberal use of loudspeakers and loudspeaker vans. These details are not included in the following article, but it has been thought advisable to mention them since, though its precise effects are difficult to assess, this kind of action has made a very important contribution to the success of an experiment which has met with an enthusiastic response from the whole population.

It was at a small congress, held on 1 February 1956, that the Moroccan League for Fundamental Education and Literacy Work adopted its final constitution. This congress was attended by representatives of the various groups and associations concerned, for the league is in fact merely a continuation of the National Committee for Literacy Work which was founded in 1950 but ceased its activities soon afterwards, owing to the troubled times through which Morocco was then passing. Article 4 of the league's constitution defines the immediate aims of the league as follows:

1. To organize the literacy campaign at the national level.
2. To work, also at the national level, for the development of fundamental education in all branches of economic and social life. In order to achieve this end, Article 4 authorizes the league to enlist the services of all men of good will, irrespective of origin, nationality, creed or opinion.

The Federal Bureau of the Moroccan League for Literacy Work, elected by the annual congress, consists of: a president, two vice-presidents, a secretary-general, two assistant secretaries, a treasurer, an assistant treasurer, two assessors, and a technical adviser.

His Majesty King Mohammed V has graciously accepted the office of honorary president.

Two committees of the Federal Bureau have been elected, the first to be responsible for propaganda and publications, and the second for financial supervision.

The members of the bureau have travelled up and down the country, appealing to the people to make a combined effort for the attainment of the league's ideals. Many teachers employed in State and private schools, as well as students, tradespeople, workers and craftsmen have responded enthusiastically to this appeal. In the first week of the campaign, 250 local committees of the league were set up in various parts of the country; by the end of the campaign the number had risen to 300. Today there are 334 such committees, and even those located in the remotest areas are steadily developing their activities, which augurs very well for the future.

One of the main factors helping the league to achieve such outstanding success in its first campaign was the Minister of Education's timely decision to put an adequate number of schools, in both town and country districts, entirely at the league's disposal.

The league began by producing, within a comparatively short time, a literacy handbook setting forth the rudiments of reading, writing and arithmetic. The publication of this handbook had surprising and quite unexpected results. The initial edition of 100,000 copies was followed up, owing to widespread demand, by further editions of 50,000 and 150,000 respectively. All three editions are now out of print, and when the

schools reopened, on the eve of 16 April 1956, 350,000 adults, both men and women, applied for enrolment.

Nearly 10,000 men and women teachers had to be recruited. On the first day of the campaign, 16 April 1956, His Majesty the King himself gave the first reading lesson at the Mohammed V School at Rabat, while Her Royal Highness, Lalla Aïcha, gave the first reading lesson for women. The thirst for learning and popular enthusiasm were such that groups of ordinary people were to be seen everywhere, in shops, booths, offices, workshops, and even at street corners, reading through their lessons together.

The inexperienced voluntary teachers, however, quickly ran into all kinds of difficulties, which the league tried to surmount by organizing guidance courses for them, either in the schools or over the radio. The campaign had been running scarcely a month before the *Aïd* holidays intervened, which lasted two weeks and, as they coincided both with the harvest and with examination time, slowed down the campaign and caused some setback in the progress made.

In response to the appeal from His Majesty Mohammed V for active participation in the literacy campaign, people flocked to the centres set up by the committees of the league. This proved a tremendous help to the teachers, enabling them at last to shake the people out of their apathy and to enliven sluggish minds by efficient and rational means. The campaign also aroused greater enthusiasm and grew in scope as a result of the Proclamation of Independence and the ensuing upsurge of national feeling in all classes of society. In Casablanca, for example, there were even cases of adults trying to force their way into crowded schools, whilst in Eastern Morocco, courses continued despite the state of emergency proclaimed in the Berkane region.

The league, for its part, spared no efforts, and organized teaching even in the prisons and amongst the patients in hospitals—the Moulay-Youssef Hospital at Rabat, for instance, and the Ibn-Samine Hospital at Azrou. At the same time, the league regularly sent women teachers twice a week to the village of Tiflet in the Rabat region to give instruction to the women and girls.

Nor were the league's activities confined to the country itself; it also made provision for Moroccans living abroad. Thus, two committees were set up, one at Dakar in Senegal and one in Paris, for the elimination of illiteracy amongst Moroccan workers. A few months after the end of the campaign, the Fundamental Education Department instituted a term of revision, to allow new literates to consolidate the knowledge they had acquired.

The centres set up by the league include the Mechraa El Kettane School, near the Mamora Forest, which is financed entirely by the league; and the Tiflet, Bouznika and Midelt centres, which provide instruction in domestic science, child care and handicrafts.

At meetings held on 7 and 8 March 1957, the first National Congress of the League recommended that the Minister of Education issue a ministerial order instituting a 'certificate of literacy', to be awarded to all persons successfully completing literacy courses. Examinations have been held recently at all the league's centres, and certificates awarded to successful candidates. At the moment, the Fundamental Education Department of the Ministry of Education is proposing to launch a fresh campaign, starting a second series of courses to bring all new literates up to the level of the Primary Education Certificate.

At this stage, a number of serious problems arise. There is, for example, the question of reading material for adults still at a very elementary level, since Arabic, as a language, is somewhat stiff and antiquated, and there have been no linguistic or typographical reforms to adapt it gradually to modern needs. Again, it is doubtful whether newly literate adults, beginning their reading with books in which all the letters are vocalized, would also be capable of reading and understanding newspapers, magazines and other current publications containing non-vocalized or only very slightly vocalized texts. To solve this problem, the league decided to bring out a weekly paper in Arabic, written in a very simple, easily comprehensible style, entirely vocalized, and containing

all kinds of information calculated to add to the knowledge of men and women just emerging from ignorance. The first number of *Manar El Maghrib* appeared on 22 July 1956 and was very well received in all quarters. It differed from other publications both in content and in form, and in particular by the fact that it contained short, simple articles touching on all aspects of everyday life, so as to be of wide general interest.

As regards funds, the league's main support has, so far, come mainly from donations from a group of members, and from certain associations, such as the El Wifaq Association and the Ligue Française de l'Enseignement Laïque; or from commercial firms such as Cinéma Atlas at Casablanca, which set aside part of its receipts, during one week, for the league. Other sources of income are the proceeds of the sale of the literacy handbook and the special stamps issued by the Post Office on behalf of the league; the 50 franc tax on tickets of admission to the Casablanca and Marrakesh Fairs; the sale of posters, handbills and placards commissioned by the Ministry of Education; and finally, members' subscriptions. These receipts are as follows (in francs): sales, 15,757,000, gifts, 4,725,234, miscellaneous, 1,835,713, total, 22,317,947 francs.

This total is exclusive of certain sums which have not yet been paid in. These are as follows: Post Office (balance of receipts from sale of stamps), 6,250,000, amounts due from centres, 6,844,000, administration of Penitentiary Services, 250,000 francs.

The total expenditure, including all printing costs, travel, rent, equipment and wages, amounts to 17,858,298 francs.

This leaves the Treasury with a surplus of about 7 million francs, which the league proposes to spend, together with the grant it expects to receive from the Government, on the conduct of its programme and the accomplishment of its educational work.

Under its constitution, the league's finances are administered by the Federal Committee, which alone is authorized to obligate funds and has delegated its powers to its president and treasurer, or their representatives. The funds are deposited in the league's name in a Rabat bank, and no sum, however small, can be withdrawn without the signatures of both the president and the treasurer or the persons delegated, in accordance with the provisions of the constitution, to act on their behalf.

Financial supervision is exercised firstly by the special committee set up for the purpose by the National Congress; and secondly, by members, at the time when the annual financial report is presented. Any member may examine the account books, which are kept up to date by an experienced secretary.

The league plans to extend its field of action as resources permit. Realizing that its work cannot be confined to organizing literacy campaigns, it proposes now to set up fundamental education centres all over the country. It feels that its work will not really be completed, nor its aims achieved, until illiteracy is eradicated and the Moroccan people as a whole have become fully aware of their responsibilities and duties as citizens and as members of the human race.

THE RURAL TEACHER AND FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION, AN EXPERIMENT IN JORDAN

FAKHER AKIL

BEGINNING OF WORK

When appointed as fundamental education consultant to the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, I started by studying local conditions and thinking of the best ways and methods of serving the Jordanian village through fundamental education schemes.

For two reasons I decided to start with a demonstration centre: (a) to show the government and villagers the services that fundamental education can render to rural districts; (b) to prepare for the foundation of the suitable centre in the following year. Lack of time, budget and plans made it impossible to give the centre its final shape before some experimentation was made.

Thus The Jordan Fundamental Education Centre opened its doors on 8 October 1955.

Work started with three graduates of the Arab States Fundamental Education Centre (ASFEC), specializing in agriculture, social welfare and literacy campaigns, and an American University of Beirut graduate in health education. Later a woman teacher joined us and was trained in home economics.

From the beginning we announced that we belonged to the Ministry of Education, that we were teachers and that the village school was our centre. Upon my request the school was given instructions to co-operate with us and my co-workers were appointed as part-time teachers in the village school. All our meetings were held in the school; the school garden was used as an experimental field, most of our activities started from the school and the school students and teachers were our helpers. This gave us a good position in the village and convinced the villagers that we were not interfering outsiders.

In the village where we were stationed (Hawara) and the village that was added later on (Booshra) we organized agricultural, social health and cultural services. A women's centre was opened in Hawara for home economics services and child-care teaching. In our work we followed the classical steps, namely: getting to know the village (both subjectively and objectively, i.e., through questionnaires and statistical studies); planning the work, implementation of projects and evaluation of work.

Our main difficulty was lack of resources to finance our projects. But this very difficulty provided us with one of our basic principles: i.e., co-operation with the different government departments and use of their financial and technical resources.

Meanwhile we started preparations for the next year's work. The first year provided us with the basic principles that were to guide us in giving permanent shape to our work. At the same time it convinced the Ministry of Education that our work was useful and that it could give concrete results if encouraged.

THE SECOND YEAR

Reasons mentioned below convinced us that fundamental education in Jordan must work through the village school (which must become the community development centre) and through the teacher who must become the community leader. This means, of course, that the rural teacher must be prepared for this job and the village school (curricula, schedules, buildings, fields, etc.) must be reorganized to fulfil this new assignment.

The Jordanian Ministry of Education accepted the idea and started a new rural teacher-training school where rural education and fundamental education were combined to prepare new teachers capable of assuming the double role of ordinary rural teachers and multi-purpose workers in fundamental education. Sirs-el-Layyan graduates

were in charge of training in fundamental education methods and techniques while a specialist in education took care of educational and psychological studies. Thirty matriculated candidates joined the new school to be trained in fundamental education and rural education. The village schools became practice schools and three villages were chosen for fundamental education services. The local population donated the necessary lands, the Ministry of Education paid the salaries, furniture and expenses, Unesco paid the expert and gave \$42,000 for technical equipment, and the Ford Foundation donated \$86,000 for buildings.

WHY A TEACHERS' TRAINING SCHOOL? AND WHY TEACHERS AS COMMUNITY LEADERS?

The following are some of the reasons that made us decide to use the rural teacher as a community leader and, therefore, to found a teachers' training school where teachers could be trained as both rural teachers and rural community leaders:

At least three-quarters of the Jordanian population live in rural districts.

The average population of a Jordanian village is 1,500-2,000 inhabitants.

Villages are remote from each other. Sometimes one has to walk no less than 50 kms. to reach the next village.

Roads in rural districts are either non-existent or very bad. Most roads are not negotiable in winter.

The Jordanian budget is very modest and Jordanian resources are limited.

Jordan is in real need of specialists in every field.

Schools are found in nearly every village. Rural schools and their gardens are always the property of the local population. The school teacher is respected.

The Jordanian villager is in great need of technical assistance of all kinds.

The villagers are quite co-operative and willing to accept sincere help.

There is considerable separation between men and women in the village.

No comprehensive plan for social reform exists although more than one government department or foreign institution speaks of plans for rural reform; however no co-operation or harmony exists amongst these institutions or departments.

There is suspicion of government departments among villagers.

Co-operation amongst villagers themselves is not common. Tribal, family and other differences are facts to be taken into serious consideration.

Because of the rise of Arab nationalism, rural populations tend to question all foreign or international undertakings, even when these are reformatory in character.

Like all rural populations, Jordanian villagers are conservative, religious and slow to accept reform.

Jordan is one of the Arab countries participating in ASFEQ; every year five fellows are sent to Sirs-el-Layyan and five graduates return.

TEACHER AND FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

For the reasons mentioned above it is obvious that the school is the normal institution for fundamental education activities in the Jordanian village and that the rural teacher is the normal leader of the rural community. He is the ideal person for a task which calls for devotion, sacrifice and knowledge. The use of the rural school as a community centre is the most economical solution from the point of view of buildings, furniture and field and technical equipment, and the training of the school teacher for fundamental education services saves duplication of personnel and technicians.

It goes without saying that the ordinary school and the ordinary teacher cannot fulfil all the aims and technical requirements of fundamental education. It was obvious that a new kind of teacher had to be prepared for the double responsibility of rural teaching and fundamental education work. In his training rural education and fundamental

education methods and techniques are of the utmost importance. It is clear that such a teacher cannot specialize in one field, he must be a multi-purpose worker who devotes himself to the village as a whole.

A teachers' training school was founded in Hawara and the local schools in the three villages were attached to it. The curriculum of the teacher-training school was a combination of rural education and fundamental education. The 28 weekly sessions were distributed as follows: rural education, 5; practice teaching, 4; psychology, 2; principles of fundamental education, 1; rural sociology, 2; agriculture, 2; agricultural extension, 2; health education, 2; teaching adults, 2; audio-visual aids, 2; rural handicrafts, 2; physical education and recreation, 2.

One day a week was set aside for field work as was a whole month during the summer vacation.

Training is both theoretical and practical, a part of the time assigned to each study being devoted to practical work either inside or outside the school. Both students and teachers are to render services to the three experimental villages which are considered to be their laboratory.

In addition to practice teaching in the three experimental schools, agricultural, health, social, cultural and recreational services were rendered to villagers. Both students and teachers introduced themselves to villagers, studied the villages and their needs (subjectively and objectively), agreed with the village leaders on important projects, co-operated with government technicians in the execution of such projects and evaluated their work before preparing their final reports.

Our most important difficulty, the lack of financial resources, was faced by persuading the government departments concerned to co-operate with us and give us financial help. We were able to convince these departments by acting as their agents in the three villages and agreeing with them on plans and aims for the fulfilment of our mutual goal of serving the villages. They co-operated most willingly when they were called upon for technical help. Our patients were sent to the Ministry of Health's clinics and hospitals, the Agricultural Extension Department of the Ministry of Agriculture gave us help and advice, the local veterinary agreed to visit our villages regularly and the Co-operatives Department agreed to give special attention and care to our villages, etc.

It may be worth mentioning that practice proved that the training time was not enough and the Jordanian Ministry of Education accepted the idea of adding another year to the training period, bringing the total to two years. A part of the additional time will be given to extra practical and theoretical work in both rural education and fundamental education while the rest will be given to laboratory and practical work in elementary rural school subjects.

As regards the future work of the teacher who is to be responsible for fundamental education services, it need not be mentioned that his time must be divided between ordinary teaching and fundamental education work. Instead of the ordinary teacher's 34 weekly sessions he should not have to teach more than 15-20 sessions. More than one of these teachers could be appointed to one village when the need is felt. In this case, division of work and *esprit-de-corps* are necessary.

With regard to rural school buildings and equipment for fundamental education, it is obvious that meeting rooms, audio-visual aids, agricultural equipment, etc., must be found.

Last but not least, the school day must be reorganized in order to leave some time in the afternoon for fundamental education work. Holidays and evenings could also be used for this work.

It is also worth mentioning that it is felt that summer courses should be organized in order to train working rural teachers in the methods and techniques of the fundamental education services to be rendered through the rural school. This, of course, would increase the number of fundamental education workers and, therefore, increase the number of villages benefiting from fundamental education.

It has already been mentioned that teachers are trained to be village-level, multi-purpose workers. This means that their main job is to bring to the specialized government departments (i.e., agriculture, health, social welfare, education, etc.) the voice of the villagers, and to bring to the village the help, services and technical advice of these departments. In other words, the rural teacher is trained both to study and understand the needs and demands of the village, and to carry out the instructions of the technicians and prepare the villages to receive such instructions and execute them. He is, therefore, the representative of the government departments in the village, but being himself a member of the village society he is also the representative of the villagers towards these government departments. Being a social worker, he is trained to understand the village problems and to render various technical services.

Behind this multi-purpose social worker, there must be a team of technicians residing in the district and serving the villagers. All these technicians must belong to an organization headed by the district governor, or his representative, and should plan, harmonize and finance the community development work in the district. This district committee should include a fundamental education specialist who is responsible for the direction and administration of the activities of the village fundamental education workers. In the capital, a central inter-ministerial committee should plan and finance the work of community development throughout the whole country. Representatives of all ministries concerned should draw up a national plan for development, assigning to each department the particular part it should play.

It is obvious that workers in the two higher categories of the district and the capital (i.e., technicians and ministry representatives) need some sort of training to enable them to make their technical and administrative knowledge available for community development work. This training must, of course, differ from level to level both in quality and quantity.

It is, therefore, of the utmost importance that a short course of training (i.e., three to six months) should be organized by ASFEC to inform these technicians as to the means and methods of fundamental education and its practice in the different technical fields.

Tours, seminars, visits, discussions, etc., should also be organized for the administrators of the national community programme to widen their knowledge and enable them to carry on their job of planning and administration.

We are pleased to mention that officials in the Ajloun district, the site of our centre, gave us every possible help and co-operation but it should be noted that this was done on a personal rather than on an organizational basis. It is also fair to record the sympathy and help that the different ministries granted to us, but again, it was thanks to personal relations that this co-operation was obtained.

TRAINING COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT OFFICERS IN THE SELECTION AND USE OF VISUAL AIDS

T. R. BATTEN

The University of London Institute of Education's training course is primarily intended for experienced officers in responsible positions, and its main purpose is to help them to make comparative studies of the ideas, methods, and techniques associated with community development work. This training purpose is achieved partly in seminar and group discussions and partly in the individual studies each officer undertakes. Its general effect is to provide the members of the course with a very broad background against which they can examine their past experience and develop ideas about the conduct of their future work.

One main subject of study is communication, for in one way or another every worker depends on being able to communicate ideas and information to the people among whom he works. It is only by this means he can hope to change existing attitudes and modify people's behaviour, and it is only as these changes occur that the worker knows that he has succeeded. It is for this reason that communication rather than visual aids now provides the main focus of study, for in our training experience on the course it is only too easy to concentrate attention on visual aids, while failing to give sufficient attention to analysing the other factors which affect the communication process: factors which, if neglected, can cause failure, however good the visual aids, and however well the worker uses them.

One such factor is the worker's judgement of what the people need; for however well-intentioned and enthusiastic he may be, and however good the visual aids he may employ, he will fail if people find his message irrelevant to their needs, in conflict with their major values, or unrealistic in terms of their local skills and resources.

A second factor is the complexity of the total message the worker wishes to communicate. While some, like, 'Get vaccinated against smallpox', may be relatively simple to get accepted since they demand from people only a brief and almost effortless response, others, such as 'Boil your drinking water', or 'Build better houses', are highly complex communications which must be broken down into a whole series of messages, some to arouse interest, some to provide detailed information, and some to teach new skills. In such cases, effective communication also involves the planning of a series of situations, each favourable to the transmission of a particular kind of message: crowd situations at exhibitions, public demonstrations, or film shows, perhaps, for the arousing of initial interest, but small groups for promoting discussion and assimilation of ideas and for the detailed teaching of skills. Attempts to communicate complex messages will fail unless they are planned as a series of messages each to be given in its most appropriate situation.

Since almost every complex message involves the worker in teaching and discussion in groups, another factor affecting his success is his ability to contact, or create, groups of the people who are most likely to value and benefit from his message. The wider the range of groups available to the worker, and the better his choice of groups with which to work, the better will be his chances of communicating successfully, and thereby affecting people's behaviour.

In addition to these major factors, others also need to be borne in mind. For instance, people will be less ready to consider a message at times when they are busy on their farms, or particularly preoccupied with their own local affairs. Again, if they have reason to mistrust or dislike the worker, they are the less likely to consider on its merits the idea he tries to communicate.

Many attempts at communication have failed because one or more of these factors

has not been taken into account. The prime job of the worker is to create for himself favourable situations in which to work, to choose the appropriate messages to communicate, to develop effective methods of presenting them, and to get people to discuss them, form opinions about them, and decide on what action they will take about them. Few visual aids can stand by themselves. Their prime function is to help the worker at *one* stage only of the process of communication—the presentation of information and ideas. They cannot free the worker from his main task of selecting the message and getting it assimilated and acted on.

It is for this reason that a good deal of the work in the communications seminar at the institute is concerned with the analysis and assessment of field programmes, especially of programmes for which officers have been responsible or in which they have participated; and it is against this broad background that the more specific studies of visual aids are made. These studies take several forms.

Separate studies are made of the different types of aids. The special advantages and disadvantages of each type are discussed in relation to the purposes of the worker, his resources for designing and producing them, and the kinds of situation in which they can be most appropriately used. Discussions are based on the field experience of the officers participating and on the reading they are currently doing on the course. Demonstrations, live and puppet drama, models, pictures, flip-charts, flannelgraphs, magnetic blackboards, filmstrips, films, and posters are all separately considered in this way.

In addition, detailed studies are made of specific visual aid materials produced in the tropics for a variety of purposes. Each example, film, filmstrip, poster or printed material is studied for appropriateness of content, design and basic appeal in relation to the kind of audience for which it is intended. Both good and bad examples are demonstrated and discussed, the purpose being to help officers to become aware of the many factors which can contribute to, or detract from the help a visual aid can give the worker. This kind of systematic assessment by experienced field workers brings many of the examples, superficially attractive and effective as they may appear at first to be, into a perspective which reveals them as quite unsuitable for the purposes for which they were designed and the situations for which they were chosen. A film, for instance, may depict the people's existing situation in such an unfavourable light that the people will reject its message as not intended for themselves. Another will transmit so many messages that people cannot take them in. Many filmstrips, even, are too long and deal with too many points in one presentation. The most useful filmstrip makes only one major point and leaves the worker ample time for subsequent teaching and discussion. Many films and filmstrips appear to be designed to supplant the worker (which they cannot do) rather than help him in his work.

The seminar also does some practical work, notably the production of a sound filmstrip. This is carried right through from the initial selection of a topic depicting some problem of relations between worker and people for use in human relations training, to the development of the story, the selection and design of suitable frames, and the actual 'shooting' of the script and recording of the dialogue. The main purpose of this project is to provide officers with opportunities for putting into practice the conclusions they have reached during their earlier discussions.

In connexion with the seminar, most officers take a course in projective techniques at the Audio-Visual Aids Unit, Wandsworth Technical College, where they learn to handle and maintain projection apparatus of many types. They also visit organizations and institutions specializing in the production or use of visual aids.

This seminar started as a 'visual aids' seminar. It has developed into its present form as a result of regular discussion with the members of the seminar as to how it can best help them to study the actual problems they encounter in their work. It is this that has shifted the focus of study from visual aids to the broader, more inclusive study of communication which is the real centre of interest.

ASSOCIATED YOUTH ENTERPRISES: FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION IN THE PACIFIC ISLANDS

The author of the following notes, Miss Mary Hopkirk, a girl-guide trainee of the New Zealand Girl Guides' Association, commenced her assignment in July 1956 and spent several months in the Cook Islands. In September she went to Samoa where she stayed for three months. From December to March she was in New Zealand for consultation. She returned in April 1957 to Samoa where she is at present.

An important outcome of Miss Hopkirk's work in the Pacific Islands has been the translation and production of Girl Guide manuals into the vernaculars of the region. It is also hoped that her work will be followed up by regular visits to further the development of guiding in the islands.

Formal education plays a large and important role in the awakening Pacific Islands but without social and civic training the all-round educational development of these people is incomplete. This was the case when the New Zealand Association of Girl Guides, through the World Association of Girl Guides and Girl Scouts applied to Unesco for help with their enterprise, 'Fundamental Education in the Pacific Islands'.

The plan was for a two-year project with the organizer working in each area for a given length of time and then retracing steps to continue follow-up work. As organizer for the project I spent the first five months in Rarotonga, in the Cook Islands, then two months in Samoa.

The Cook group which is part of the New Zealand Island Territories, consists of 15 small islands scattered over 85,000 square miles of the South Pacific. Their geographical situation divides them naturally into two groups, the fertile southern islands which grow tropical produce and the small northern atolls which grow very little. Isolation from New Zealand, which is 1,800 miles south, and from other islands within the group, makes development and central government difficult. Transport facilities are very limited both within the group and with the outside world.

The race is a very old one with well-established traditions and customs. With the impact of modern civilization it is important to try to know and understand the background from which it is slowly emerging. National conscience needs to be respected and developed, not swept aside, and here lay an important part of my work. My ideas needed to be adapted to suit local conditions and until I knew those conditions I was not in a position to be of much value or help. Working along with education and health authorities, visiting, discussing, reading, helping and travelling, I was gradually able to form a picture. Time spent among the people in their villages and homes, classes with guides, visits to church officials and interviews and discussions with Maori and European lay people, gradually helped me to form a background from which I could clarify and judge the standards to be expected and the best approach to subjects which should be included in a youth programme.

In a country where living conditions, because of isolation, are somewhat primitive and where interests and activities known in more advanced countries are non-existent, there are vast opportunities for fundamental education in its broadest sense. Outside of school hours, which are from 7.30 to 12.30 or when schooling is completed, there is little for the girls and young women to do beyond helping around the home or in the plantations. This lack of interest does not help in the building of a stronger, more enlightened race. In the home and in the outdoor work too, there is much that could be taught along practical lines. In connexion with civic education, the young people,

if trained, could help widely in the organizing of village and island activities and reform. The island home is a simple one. The majority of the inhabitants live in small thatched huts with little or no furniture and few possessions. Cooking is done out of doors in the traditional Maori oven. As well as having a few fowls and pigs, most families grow enough food and fruit for their own uses. As a race they are clever with their hands, but unfortunately many of the traditional crafts are dying because of lack of interest among the younger generation, who can see no future in clinging to tradition.

And so with a picture of the material in hand, I made a beginning. Using Guiding as a medium I ran a series of training classes for leaders. These were held fortnightly during the five months I was in Rarotonga. They covered a wide range of subjects, planned to help the people become better citizens and more useful home-makers. Certain national characteristics make leadership difficult, but with continual practice and encouragement these will gradually be overcome. The happy-go-lucky, easy-going life the islanders lead does not help them to understand the need for punctuality or for continuous conscientious striving for higher standards. Food is plentiful and easily procured. In the absence of material possessions, knowledge is a precious possession and few have reached the stage when they will happily hand it on to others. These traits are perhaps the most difficult to overcome when dealing with future leaders who, in turn, must learn to train others.

Fundamental homecrafts figure largely in training of this nature, but all subjects must be adapted to conform to local conditions. Children are loved by all Maori people but the day-by-day social, mental, physical and emotional care given to them does not reach a high standard. Consequently, much time was spent on child care and management. A higher standard of hygiene and health should make for better living conditions. Because the islands must depend on rain for fresh water supplies, water for personal use is scarce, but, in spite of crowded living quarters, there is a high standard of personal cleanliness. By means of discussions, practical demonstrations and visual aids, much ground was covered. Further knowledge of food values and cleanliness in handling food should help to eliminate much sickness, so training time was spent on this. With the recent influx of European tinned foods on the market, it is harder to persuade the Maori people that their own native and fresh foods are superior.

Any movement working for the betterment of island people must have firm foundations and demand high standards. It is the same with social and civic service. Until the girls have been taught how they can serve and where they can be of real value in helping their own people it is impossible for them to make a beginning. Our training classes dealt with this aspect, as well as with a wide range of subjects which would help develop intelligence, handicrafts, service and international understanding. In such an isolated community international understanding is difficult to develop, so considerable time must be spent on it. I was able to speak not only to those attending the training class, but also to school children, and to adult groups in villages who were keenly interested in this subject. Aids in the form of stories and pictures depicting the lives and work of other people were especially helpful here, because much work had to be done through an interpreter. On the whole very little English is understood, especially in the more distant and isolated outer islands. Simple textbooks and leader's aids were needed so I spent considerable time in having these adapted, written and translated into the Maori language. This was very slow work as translating into the vernacular is difficult. The vocabulary is very limited and there are few who are sufficiently conversant with both English and Maori languages to be able to translate satisfactorily. English, although now being taught up to a certain standard at school, is still not widely spoken.

During the next few months I plan to do much more work in adapting and translating.

As a follow-up of leaders' training classes, I spent much time with the girls in

the different villages, giving individual practical help to the leaders to enable them to include extra activities. I organized tramping, sports days, camp fires, singing and outdoor and indoor activities, all of which help to give an all-round training in community relations. I was able to give talks on the weekly radio broadcast. These were aimed to interest both Maori and European listeners. In the same way the daily news-sheet proved useful. Throughout my stay I received complete co-operation from the Administration, the Education Department, and the Health Authorities; without their help in the way of transport, literature and verbal information I would not have been able to accomplish as much.

The Girl Guide Movement with its fundamental aims and ideals and its character-forming training can do much to help these island girls to a greater understanding of citizenship and of life in a wider world. With the interest and valuable assistance given by SAYE (System of Associated Youth Enterprises) we hope to achieve this.

NOTES AND RECORDS

ASSISTANCE TO UNDERDEVELOPED COUNTRIES—AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY 1945-56

As time progresses, it is becoming increasingly difficult for social scientists, educators and even personnel working under the Expanded Technical Assistance Programme of the United Nations and its Specialized Agencies, to find a way through the vast amount of documentation relating to technical assistance to underdeveloped countries. Unesco has therefore asked the International Committee for Social Sciences Documentation to prepare a selective annotated bibliography covering the period 1945-56 and giving data on the main documents and publications relating to this field. Although the accent in the whole programme is placed on economic development of areas of the world which can be considered as underdeveloped, the prolific documentation shows the growing concern of administrators to establish a sound relationship between technical and economic development and educational policy. The bibliography will consist of a first part dealing with documents giving a general appraisal of assistance programmes and will go on to discuss bilateral and multilateral assistance programmes of the United Nations. It will include a discussion of regional assistance programmes organized to complete the multilateral international action. Fundamental education specialists will doubtless find most important material in such chapters as these dealing with the 'Meaning of the UN Assistance Programme', including its evaluation, the 'Administration of the Programme' and the 'Elaboration and Development of the Programme'. The bibliography is issued in the series *Reports and Papers in the Social Sciences* as No. 8, 1957.

THAILAND-UNESCO FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION CENTRE, UBOL, THAILAND

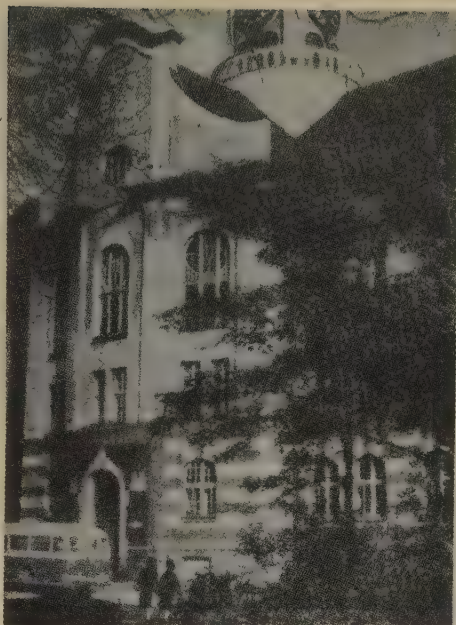
TUFEC conference on village work. TUFEC has recently held a conference, the first of its kind in Thailand, when administrative officers, education officers and Fundamental Education Organizers, the official title of the TUFEC graduates (FEOs), from 20 provinces sat down together to look at the practical day-to-day problems facing village development workers

in Thailand and to discuss ways in which the FEO teams can contribute towards their solution. One of the encouraging things about the conference was the growing feeling of participation of the provincial and district officers in the work of the teams. A year ago, when the first TUFEC graduates went out to the villages, they were a new category of government officials working in a new frame of reference: now their aims and methods are more fully understood and they have gained acceptance as a new service for rural development that has come to stay. This increased interest on the part of official colleagues in the FEOs' work did of course sometimes express itself in the form of criticism, but that in itself was often an encouraging sign of provincial officers' growing feeling of involvement in the work of the FEO teams in their areas.

Some of the conference's recommendations throw light on the sort of activity that a community development service is concerned with:

1. There was a lot of discussion on budgets for village work and the necessity for the teams to retain their mobility in activities which often cover a number of villages. This took the form of a recommendation that each team should have its own car or motor boat. (One of the teams already moves round its well-watered area in a speed boat.)
2. TUFEC was asked to consider the form that the FEOs' half-yearly reports should take. There was a general feeling that statistics and hopeful generalizations should be kept to a minimum and that real problems should be exposed and discussed so as to provide a sharing of experience between senior provincial officers, TUFEC and the FEOs.
3. It was recommended that the Ministries in Bangkok should be asked to pass on to their officers at provincial and district level some information about the FEO teams in terms that would encourage co-operation.
4. Another recommendation was made to the effect that students while at TUFEC should be given more training in public relations and in administrative matters.
5. It was considered that FEO teams should be given more opportunities to work together as area teams before returning to

School in Cracow where adult secondary education is conducted during the late afternoons and evenings.
(Photo: Unesco.)



their home provinces. The practice at TUFEC so far has been to break up area teams during their village training so that students from the different parts of the kingdom could learn to work together and thus widen their range of ideas and experience, but a way must be found to give the area teams coherence before the students graduate and return to their home provinces. TUFEC is continuously concerned with the task of establishing and maintaining closer relations with the provincial administration both in the centre's action area and in the provinces to which its graduates return. This must go beyond a disposition to co-operate with others: it must be reflected in an attitude of mind leading to a continuous effort *at field level* to find practical ways of working with the existing technical services of government. If the students find at TUFEC a harmonious and effective pattern of relationships with the local official world, they will carry back with them to their home areas attitudes that will help them to work with and through their government colleagues. For TUFEC is learning that to work successfully with villagers it is necessary to have the help and understanding of the whole spread of government services at all levels. The conference chairman was the Permanent Under-Secretary of State for Education. Members of the conference saw something of TUFEC's work both at the centre and in the ten village centres where students live in their second year and get their field training. Much of the conference's work was done in small discussion groups. It provided TUFEC staff with much food for thought and guidance in adapting the centre's programme to the realities of work in rural Thailand. It will be followed up by a seminar in which government officials at the policy-making level will work with all TUFEC graduates and staff in studying the work already done and planning for the future.

REGIONAL EUROPEAN SEMINAR ON ADULT EDUCATION

At the invitation of the Polish National Commission and with the technical and financial help of Unesco (Participation Programme) 35 leaders in adult education from 14 European

countries¹ assembled in Warsaw, Poland, for a two weeks' seminar, in September 1957, to study the methods, scope and organization of adult education in Europe.

The participants were chosen by their governments and were high-level experts in adult education. They included directors of education, university professors, principals of folk high schools, senior government education officers, theatrical producers, educational librarians and journalists. English, French, Russian and Polish were the working languages and simultaneous interpretation was employed in all discussions.

The director of the seminar was Professor J. Barbag who is head of the Adult Education Division of the Polish Ministry of Education, and also professor of geography at Warsaw University.

Work was conducted in three study groups: The Organization and Popularization of Natural and Social Sciences, leader Professor Ross Waller (U.K.); Residential Adult Schools (Popular Universities) and Educational Group Work, leader Professor Torgil Ringmar (Sweden); and School Forms of Adult Education (i.e., elementary and secondary education made

1. Austria, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Finland, France, Hungary, Poland, Rumania, Sweden, Switzerland, U.K., U.S.S.R., Yugoslavia.



A group of participants outside the Palace of Culture, Warsaw. Left to right: Mr. A. Dolmazon, France; Prof. K. Szelagowski, Poland; Prof. J. Barbag, Director of the Seminar, Poland; Mr. P. Arents. (Photo: Unesco.)

available to young adults), leader Professor K. Szelagowski (Poland).

This was an historic seminar in the sense that it was the first time since the war that adult educationists from all areas of Europe had an opportunity of meeting to discuss the methods, scope and purpose of their educational work. A good deal of descriptive information was exchanged and some fundamental problems discussed. Although participants acknowledged the existence of basic differences in social organization in the countries of East and West, at no point did this lead to a deadlock. Instead it became clearer that educational problems were similar in all areas concerned, although methods of approach and organization differed from one region to another. It was evident to all that the adult education services are an indispensable part of the educational provision of any modern State. School forms of adult education proved to be new to Western European countries, whereas residential folk high schools, university extension work, were not widely practised in the Eastern European countries. Questions such as the role of adult education against the background of rapidly changing technical conditions and the use of increased leisure-time—both important problems to be faced in the future—were discussed.

There was unanimous agreement that adult education is gaining in importance everywhere, that the need for it is universal and that it is indispensable at all levels in modern societies whatever their basic structures may be.

The co-operative attitude and general common interest of all participants at this seminar are reflected in the unanimity with which all resolutions were passed. Among them were the following:

- 'That adult education not only offers a means of understanding the societies in which we live and the sciences and arts by which they are maintained; it also offers the readiest means of international understanding and can make a great contribution to the preservation of peace. . .'
- 'That seminars, such as this one, offer an incomparable means for the exchange of information and ideas and for the establishment of useful international contacts. . .'
- 'That such contacts should be followed up by numerous exchanges and study tours by adult education organizers and teachers. . .'
- 'That in view of the increasing importance of adult education in all countries and the consequently increasing need for appropriate staff, attention should everywhere be given to the training for adult educational organizers and teachers. This should not only concern governments and associations of adult educational bodies, but should be urged also upon the attention of institutes of education and the education departments and faculties of universities. There is a great need for studies in the sociology and methodology of adult education, as well as for practical training'.

At the end of the seminar participants toured the industrial area of Silesia, in Southern Poland, as the guests of the Polish Government. In Warsaw, and later in Cracow and Katowice, they had the chance of seeing at first hand some aspects of Polish adult education. Meetings were arranged with Polish educators; many animated discussions took place and much useful documentation was exchanged.

Visits were made to elementary and secondary schools for workers, cultural institutions, cultural centres in the new industrial towns, a planetarium, art galleries, museums, etc. A visit was also made to a mining town to see educational facilities made available to miners in the area.

It is difficult at this stage to assess the results of the seminar, but certain elements already clearly emerge. New and direct contacts between certain European countries have been made. Some invitations to exchange study visits have been made, others have been promised. Better understanding between the representatives of the participating countries

A class at an evening secondary school in Katowice, Southern Poland. (Photo: Unesco.)

has been established and the value of co-operation at expert level understood.

A detailed report of the findings of this seminar will soon be available in English and French from the Polish Ministry of Education and Unesco.

This report will include some valuable descriptions of contemporary methods, techniques and organization of adult education in present-day Europe, as well as the group findings on some of the more pressing educational problems brought about by rapid scientific and technical advances.

CULTURAL INITIATION LIBRARY, SPAIN

The Commission for Cultural Development of the Ministry of National Education has set up a special library for the purpose of fostering and strengthening the reading habit in circles where books are at present almost unobtainable. The service covers the entire country and takes the form of the consignment by the Commission of batches of books, mainly to schools in rural areas, whose teachers put them into circulation by lending them out for home reading.

Each batch contains 15 volumes, selected to meet the needs and capacities of adults and young people unused to reading. It is for this reason that the service has been called 'Cultural Initiation Library'.

The books in each batch include stories and legends, biographies, popular science works and technical handbooks; they are all elementary in nature and suitable to rural interests.

At present, a series of 17 different batches is in circulation, and it is planned to increase the number to at least a hundred during the next school year. By way of example, the contents of some of the batches are given below:

Batch II. Fernando Alburquerque: *El Gallinero como mina de oro*. Araluce: *Cuentos noruegos*, and *Cuentos húngaros*. Capitán Argüello: *Las conquistas del hombre (El Mar, II)*. José D. Benavides: *Séneca*. Herman Melville: *Moby Dick*. Siri Ohlson: *Egipto*. Antonio J. Onieva: *El libro de las maravillas, II*. Maud and Miska Petersham: *El libro del petróleo*. R. Rovira: *Los grandes inventores antiguos*. Jorge Santelmo: *Bolívar*. Juan Subías Galter: *La catedral gótica*. Manuel Vallvé: *Las Campanas*; *Ricardo Corazon de león*; and *Los siete Infantes de Lara*.



Batch X. Fernando Alburquerque: *La vaca*. Araluce: *Cuentos griegos*, and *Cuentos japoneses*. Carmela Eulate: *El Ramayana*. Fray Celso García: *Don Juan de Austria*. José de C. Laporta: *Henry Ford*. Alejandro Manzanares: *Naturaleza*. Antonio J. Onieva: *Cien figuras españolas, I*, and *Florilegio de mujeres españolas*. Herbert Paatz: *Maravilloso viaje del Dr. Acorta al reino de los animales*. Maud and Miska Petersham: *El libro de la vivienda*. H. Pienaar: *Historia de una familia de leones*. José Foch Noguier: *Los Comuneros de Castilla*. Antonio Ribera: *La exploración submarina*. Manuel Vallvé: *Los caballeros de la Tabla Redonda*.

Each batch is delivered in a box-container to the applicant teacher, who is entitled to use up to three batches at a time, returning them to the Commission within a maximum period of three months.

No charge is made for the supply of books, the only cost to the recipient being for the return of the containers; and this is so small that the whole popular reading service may be described as free.

The results of the three months' trial operation of the service are very encouraging: 1,200 readers are served at present; 90 batches, comprising 1,350 volumes, are issued daily—45,000 volumes have so far been issued; the estimated number of daily readings is 10,000; book titles number 255.

The service is operated directly by the Commission for Cultural Development, to which the applications for batches of books are made and to which the containers are returned.

LIBRARIES AND FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

The Medellín Pilot Public Library has served over a million readers during its first three

years. It now has 36,000 volumes, 26,000 registered readers and lends approximately 23,000 books a month for home reading; 1,500 readers visit the library each day. The library serves the rural and industrial population by means of a bookmobile, book-boxes, reading rooms and two branch libraries. A new building which will cost approximately one million Colombian pesos is now under construction. Completion is expected by the end of 1958.

At Unesco's request, the Delhi Public Library, India, will carry out studies of the reading interests of the new reading public and of techniques for encouraging the use of simple reading materials.

The agreement for the establishment of a pilot public library in Enugu, Nigeria, similar to those in Delhi and Medellin, was signed by the Government of Eastern Nigeria and Unesco in May 1957. Mr. H. S. Horrocks, Borough Librarian of Reading, U.K., went to Enugu in July to help the Eastern Region Library Board organize the library.

Miss Mary Anglemeyer, a Unesco/TA expert, is in Thailand on a one-year mission to follow-up with the TUFEC library programme.

Aid in the field of libraries is being granted to Iraq by Unesco during 1957 under the Participation Programme. Mr. H. V. Bonny, a Unesco library expert, is now in Iraq, helping the Government organize school and public libraries. Equipment up to a value of \$2,000 is being provided by Unesco.

Three Unesco/TA library experts, Mr. J. C. Cole, Mr. C. H. Saunders and Mrs. A. Rud, are helping the Government of Indonesia to implement its national library programme.

A bookmobile which was given to Greece by Unesco is now attached to the Ministry of Education's library service. It serves the rural population in the outskirts of Athens.

The Graduate Library School of the Hebrew University in Jerusalem, organized by the Government of Israel and Unesco TA, which was opened in November 1956, successfully completed its first academic year. Mrs. N. Delougaz, a TA library expert who helped organize the school, has acted as its executive secretary during 1957. The school now has 25 students.

The Kiriath Yovel Public Library, a small pilot public library, was organized in a suburb of Jerusalem in 1957 with Unesco's aid. This library serves several settlements of immigrants belonging to different ethnic groups. Approximately \$6,000 worth of equipment was awarded to this project by Unesco.

Exchange of publications. Copies of the preliminary draft conventions concerning the inter-

national exchange of publications have been distributed to Unesco Member States for comment. An intergovernmental meeting of experts will be held in May or June 1958, to prepare revised drafts of the conventions for submission to the General Conference of Unesco.

A Seminar on the International Exchange of Publications in the Indo-Pacific Area was held from 4 to 11 November 1957 in Tokyo. The purpose of the seminar was to study the principal problems of the international exchange of publications among countries in the region and to make recommendations for the development of international exchange services.

The Arab League convened a meeting on exchange of publications at Damascus from 22 to 28 June 1957. D. R. Kalia, head, Library and Regional Clearing House, ASFEC, represented Unesco. Unesco co-operated with the league in organizing the conference. The conference urged governments to establish national libraries where these do not exist and recommended that exchange centres should be set up in these libraries and that the Arab League should study the question of drawing up a unified system of book classification suited to Arab States.

International meetings of librarians and documentalists. As in previous years, the International Federation of Library Associations and the International Federation for Documentation held their 1957 meetings closely following each other and in the same place, Paris.

The twenty-third FID Conference, held from 16 to 21 September, was attended by over 150 delegates from 10 countries and observers from Unesco, FAO, WHO, ICAM and the International Housing Organization.

The twenty-third session of the IFLA Council took place from 23 to 26 September. Nearly 100 persons from 10 countries were present, including representatives of Unesco.

MUSIC EDUCATION FOR YOUTH AND ADULTS

The International Conference on Technical Media and Music Education organized by the International Music Council and the International Society for Music Education in co-operation with the North-West German radio and television networks, was held at Hamburg, Germany, 16-22 June 1957.

Sixty-four specialists from 25 Member States attended the meeting and discussed the possibilities and limitations of technical media in music education for youth and adults.

Samples of music education broadcasts, television play-back and life-casts, gramophone recordings, tapes and films illustrated the reports on programmes for music education in schools and community centres all over the world.

Recommendations and resolutions were made asking for Unesco's assistance in the field of the teaching of music by improving the exchange of information and music education programmes between East and West and facilitating the customs-free circulation of audio-visual materials.

ART EDUCATION AND YOUTH

Under the terms of a contract with Unesco, the International Society for Education through Art (INSEA), held its second general assembly at The Hague, Netherlands, 19-23 August 1957.

'Art Education and Adolescence' was the theme for the conference, which was organized in co-operation with the Netherlands Art Education Association and in which 400 art educators from 27 countries took part.

In the course of the assembly, both the general sessions and the group sessions dealt with new methods and programmes for the teaching of the arts to adolescents. An international exhibition of the art works of about 350 adolescents, shown at the Community Museum at The Hague, will be circulated throughout Member States. INSEA has also published a list of teaching aids and study materials available in the field of art education for the use of art education institutes and organizations and individual art teachers throughout the world.

WORKSHOP ON READING MATERIALS

Twenty authors, illustrators and publishers from Burma, Ceylon, India and Pakistan met in Rangoon, Burma, from 28 October to the end of November last to evolve simple, practical techniques for preparing, publishing and distributing books to millions of newly literate persons and the new reading public of South Asia.

The group, reinforced by a team of Unesco experts, Ford Foundation consultants and Burmese specialists, studied the methods and practices used in the four Asian countries for the preparation and production of such reading materials. The participants also planned to produce an illustrated anthology for publication in their various languages.

Sponsored by Unesco and financed through

Technical Assistance funds, this seminar was a practical workshop rather than a formal round-table conference. Participation in the editing of manuscripts, actual workshop practice for the illustrators, practical demonstration in printing, field testing of readability and comprehensibility testified to the practical nature of this seminar.

The Burma Translation Society made its editorial headquarters, its printing plant and its administrative and distribution offices available. Burmese Premier U Nu, who is the president of the society, opened the seminar.

The organization of the seminar was entrusted to Mr. J. E. Morpurgo, director of the National Book League, London, assisted by Hamid Ali Khan of the Jamia Millia, New Delhi.

Unesco expert in printing Mr. Peter Neumann, and Technical Assistance expert in book illustration Mr. Thomaues, were among the specialists providing expert services.

A fuller account of this workshop will be given in a later issue.

PUBLICATIONS ON READING MATERIAL FOR NEW LITERATES

The first of these publications, issued in October 1957, is a small book in the series *Reports and Papers on Mass Communication* (No. 22), entitled *Periodicals for New Literates; Editorial Methods*. It comprises two parts, the first of which offers general guidance for the editing of periodicals for new literates (whatever the form of such periodicals), while the second is more specifically concerned with the newspapers published for such audiences. The first part, containing rules on vocabulary selection, content, style, make-up, etc., was first drafted by Professor Robert S. Laubach of Syracuse University and Professor David Manning-White, chairman of the Council on Communications Research, and was amended on the basis of suggestions from field workers. The author of the second part is Dr. Rupert M. East, formerly associated with literacy work in Africa.

The second publication, scheduled to be issued late in 1957, is a companion piece to the book on editorial methods; it will appear in the same series (No. 24) under the title *Periodicals for New Literates; Seven Case Histories*. The agencies whose periodicals are described in this book include private and government-sponsored bodies in Puerto Rico, Liberia, Ghana, Tanganyika, North and South India, and Burma. An attempt was made to provide information on editorial and technical aspects

of the periodicals and of their role in relation to the overall programmes of the agencies concerned.

A book on the work of small printing shops in technically underdeveloped regions is also in preparation, and will probably be published in the spring of 1958. The information contained in this volume will, it is hoped, be of interest to the printers of periodicals for new literates; however, the book will not be limited to this aspect of printing only, but will have a more general purpose as well.

In 1958 Unesco will also issue, in its series *Monographs on Fundamental Education*, a collection of studies on the production of literature, in both book and periodical form, for new literates. These studies were prepared for the June 1956 expert meeting on this topic held at Murree, Pakistan [see note in our October 1956 issue (Vol. VIII, No. 4)] and were edited by Mr. Charles Richards, director, East African Literature Bureau. The collection will appear in English, French and Spanish.

USE OF NEWSREELS IN FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

During a recent visit to Unesco, Miss Myrtle Winter, chief of the Visual Aids and Photographic Division of the United Nations Works Relief Agency (UNWRA) at Beirut, informed the Secretariat that five issues of a monthly filmed news magazine had so far been produced for the UNWRA refugee camps, where the regular presentation of up-to-date news has won interested audiences of as many as 70,000.

The production on the spot of a low-cost newsreel is an outgrowth of the Unesco-UNWRA pilot project in low-budget film making. A detailed study of the processes worked out during the project and a report of the practical results achieved through newsreel production will be published by Unesco early next year in the series *Reports and Papers on Mass Communication*.

The UNWRA newsreel contains educational items—particularly on health education—as well as items of topical interest. Miss Winter

and her collaborators feel that this type of film is more useful for fundamental education in the refugee camps than the intentionally educational film. It can be produced rapidly and regularly and attracts large audiences because of its combined informational and educational character. The popularity of the newsreel and the cumulative effect of the educational items included in it have been most gratifying to the producers who plan to widen the scope of their treatment of fundamental education problems.

RECENT INFORMATION MATERIALS ISSUED BY UNESCO

Two information kits in English and French editions are now being distributed by the Public Liaison Division of Unesco: No. 1, 'New Horizons for Women through Education', and No. 2 'Unesco and Youth'. Intended for use by group leaders, teachers, editors of publications, and speakers on Unesco activities, these kits may be had on request to the Department of Mass Communication, Unesco, 19 Avenue Kléber, Paris. The supply of kit No. 1 is extremely limited.

Two information manuals have been issued during the past year, and copies are still available in English, French, or Spanish: manual No. 1, *What is Unesco?* (52 pages) is intended for the use of speakers, teachers, programme chairmen, etc., and gives detailed information on the foundation, structure and departmental activities of Unesco, together with subsidiary information. Manual No. 2, *Technical Assistance—the Role of Unesco* (23 pages) describes the part played by Unesco in the Technical Assistance programme of the United Nations.

To be issued in 1958. The United Nations and Unesco are co-operating in the United Nations publication of a handbook on model United Nations sessions which will be useful to group leaders in organizing programmes to illustrate the organization and activities of the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies. Publication is scheduled for early 1958.

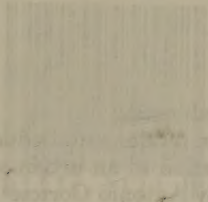
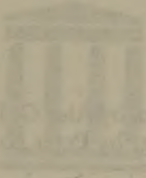
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Old Pallet:
1A1050112



Fundamental and adult
education 1958: Vol 10

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CONTACTS

CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

- W. F. Jeffries was an education officer in the United Kingdom Colonial Education Service in Northern Nigeria from 1929 to 1957.
- Professor Adolfo Maíllo García is Inspector General of Primary Education, Ministry of Education, Madrid.
- Professor Roberto Abadie Soriano is Inspector of Adult Courses and Secretary of the National Board for Total Literacy, Montevideo, Uruguay.
- Dr. A. R. Deshpande is Director of the National Fundamental Education Centre, Ministry of Education, Government of India, New Delhi.
- Mr. Ahmed Lakhdar is Head of the Fundamental Education Bureau, Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, Rabat, Morocco.
- Dr. Fakher Akil is Unesco expert on fundamental education to the Government of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan.
- T. R. Batten is Senior Lecturer and Supervisor of Studies in Community Development at the University of London Institute of Education.

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